

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE ROLES OF PRICE, QUALITY, AND  
INTERMEDIARY CONSTRUCTS IN DETERMINING BEHAVIORAL INTENTION  
TO VISIT A FESTIVAL

A Dissertation

by

SO YON LEE

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of  
Texas A&M University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2005

Major Subject: Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences

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Approved as to style and content by:

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John L. Crompton  
(Chair of Committee)

---

Joseph T. O'Leary  
(Member)

---

James F. Petrick  
(Member)

---

James F. McNamara  
(Member)

---

Joseph T. O'Leary  
(Head of Department)

May 2005

Major Subject: Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences

## ABSTRACT

A Conceptual Model of the Roles of Price, Quality, and Intermediary Constructs in  
Determining Behavioral Intention to Visit a Festival. (May 2005)

So Yon Lee, B.S., University of North Texas;

M.S., University of North Texas

Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. John L. Crompton

A clear understanding of the relationship among three performance indicators (perceived service quality, perceived service value, and satisfaction) would inform tourism businesses and organizations which of these evaluation measures were the most useful indicators of visitors' behavioral intentions. *Perceived service quality* is a user's judgment about a service's overall excellence or superiority (Berry, Parasuraman and Zeithaml 1988). *Perceived service value* has been recognized in the past decade as one of the most salient determinants of purchase intention and repeat visitation (Bolton and Drew 1991; Chang and Wildt 1994; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996). Previous studies (Grewal, Monroe and Krishnan 1998; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996; Oh 1999; Sweeney, Soutar and Johnson 1997; Zeithaml 1988) suggested that perceived service value which is defined as a trade-off between visitors' perceptions of the "give" and "get" components of a service (Zeithaml 1988) mediates the influence of perceived price and perceived service quality. *Satisfaction* is a visitor's affective and evaluative response to the overall product or service experience (Oliver 1997). What visitors receive from their investment

(money, time and other resources) on a tourism trip are psychological benefits. Thus, it is an experience that visitors receive from interacting with the tourism product, and satisfaction is an evaluation of the level to which these psychological benefits are received (Crompton and Love 1995).

This study is an examination of the relationships between visitors' perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Respondents were visitors who attended the Cajun Catfish Festival in Conroe, Texas and were systematically selected. Findings revealed that: a) a structural model operationalizing perceived service quality as a set of attributes fit the data better than an alternative model that measured quality by using a visitor's judgment about a service's overall excellence or superiority; b) among the constructs analyzed perceived service value appeared to be the best predictor of behavioral intentions; and c) of the four dimensions of service quality of a festival, generic features and comfort amenities had the most influence on determining perceived service quality.

*To my parents,*

*Dr. Jang Joo Lee and Kyeong Ja Lee, for their continual support and love*

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the many people who have supported me through their words of encouragement, ideas, and assistance. This dissertation could not have been written without them.

I wish to express my sincere appreciation for Dr. John Crompton, my advisor and committee chair for his guidance in the development of the study and his patience and understanding during the development of the chapters for the dissertation. I thank him for the faith and confidence that he has shown in me. I hope that in some measure I have met expectations. You have been a tremendous influence on me as a researcher as well as a teacher.

I am also thankful to the other members of the committee, for their time and willingness to serve on my doctoral committee. To Dr. Petrick, thank you so much for your support and encouragement. I truly appreciate your insights, your understanding and your patience with me. To Dr. O'Leary, thank you so much for your knowledge, expertise and continued support of me. Thanks is extended to Dr. McNamara, for his knowledge, expertise, and insightful suggestions.

I am grateful for the advice and aid of many of the RPTS faculty, staff, and graduate students. To Marguerite, thank you so much for watching out for me and keeping me in line so that I can be on the right track to graduation. I appreciate everything that you did for me during the years of my study. Kathryn and Jamie Rae have given me encouragement just when I needed it. I would also like to thank Tina and

Vivian for their kindness and assistance. I would like to extend my appreciation to Leo Hewett who helped facilitate the survey.

My friends have continually supported and uplifted me. Minsun, thanks for making me laugh and keeping me motivated. You have inspired me in many ways. I'm so thankful that I have a great friend and "dongseng" like you. I am also deeply thankful to my sister, Yoon for her support and encouragement and my church friends at St. Mary's Catholic Church for their prayers and words of encouragement.

My most profound gratitude, however, is received for my parents, who stood with me throughout the research and writing of this document. My parents, Dr. Jang Joo Lee and Kyeong Ja Lee, helped in a hundred ways, financial, emotional, and professional, and they have only added the lifetime of thanks that I have for them.

Lastly, I thanks to God, who has given me the strength to survive in this journey. Thank you for giving me a chance to know you closer to my heart and realize that you are and will be always with me and watching me...Thank you ...

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Service industries play an important role in most economies. As competition increases in the market, tourism businesses and organizations need to develop effective methods for being more responsive to peoples' needs and retaining more loyal participants since attracting new participants will cost more which involves more advertising and promoting.

Like other fields, tourism involves both goods and services, but the service component is relatively high. The focus of this study is on festivals and like other leisure and tourism providers, festival organizers are likely to contend that their primary goal is to provide high quality, satisfying experiences which visitors perceive to be good value in order to increase the probability that they will revisit in the future and/or recommend the festival to others in their social circle. It has been suggested that each of these determining constructs (perceived quality, perceived value, and satisfaction) should be measured to monitor a festival's performance and to understand more thoroughly the interrelationships between them (Baker and Crompton 2000; Getty and

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This thesis follows the style and format of the Annals of Tourism Research.

Thompson 1994; Petrick and Backman 2002a; Tam 2000). Enhanced understanding of the relationships among these constructs and their relative influence in determining behavioral intention to revisit, would better equip festival providers to adjust their services and marketing efforts to enhance positive behavioral intention. Quality attributes can be more useful than either satisfaction or perceived value items since festival and event managers can control and manipulate the items.

Perceived quality and satisfaction have been shown to be good predictors of visitors' future behavioral intentions (Baker and Crompton 2000; Tian-Cole et al. 2002). While perceived quality and perceived value are cognitive responses to a service offering, overall satisfaction is an emotional response based on a holistic view of a phenomenon (Cronin et al. 2000). With a clear understanding of the relationship among these three constructs, tourism businesses and organizations would know which of these evaluation measures have the stronger total effect on visitors' behavioral intentions.

## Overview of Constructs

### *Perceived Service Quality*

Service quality has become a major concern of service industries. Berry and Parasuraman (1991) stated that service is the essence of services marketing and that service quality is its foundation. Perceived service quality is a user's judgment about a service's overall excellence or superiority (Berry et al. 1988). In tourism businesses and

organizations, suppliers provide the same types of services, but they do not provide the same service. Wager (1966, p.12) observed, “Quality is a human concept based on highly subjective criteria ... and seems to be a highly personal matter.” Due to the central importance of service quality, tourism businesses and organizations have commissioned research studies designed to identify, assess, or evaluate the phenomenon of service quality.

In the private sector of tourism, the ultimate goal of businesses and organizations is to increase profits. Improving technical aspects of goods and services is not sufficient to retain participants. Tourism businesses and organizations are investing more effort in improving perceptions of service quality so visitors (participants) will become repeat visitors and spread positive word-of-mouth to their social group (Crompton and Lamb 1986). For public sector organizations, making a profit may not be an ultimate goal. Rather it may be to satisfy participants’ needs and wants (Crompton and Lamb 1986). In public tourism businesses and organizations, participants are most likely to find satisfaction through high quality service (MacKay and Crompton 1988).

#### *Perceived Service Value*

Perceived service value has been recognized in the past decade as one of the most salient determinants of purchase intention and repeat visitation (Chang and Wildt 1994; Bolton and Drew 1991a; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996). Although, considerable research has focused on perceived service quality as an important determinant of



satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Parasuraman et al. 1988; Brown et al. 1993; Zeithaml et al. 1996), there has been relatively more empirical research conducted on perceived service value and its relationship to visitor satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Anderson et al. 1994; Cronin et al. 2000; Caruana, Money and Berthon 2000; Oh 1999; Sweeney et al. 1997).

Chang and Wildt (1994) found that the purchase intention is strongly and positively influenced by perceived service value. Previous studies (Grewal, et al. 1998; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996; Oh 1999; Sweeney et al. 1997; Zeithaml 1988) suggested that the perceived service value mediates the influence of perceived price and perceived service quality.

### *Satisfaction*

Satisfaction has become a central concept in modern marketing thought and practice (Yi 1990). Many studies have made significant contributions to better understanding this complex phenomenon (Bearden and Teel 1983; Oliver 1980, 1989; Spreng et al. 1996; Williams 1988). Achieving visitor satisfaction is one of important goals for most tourism service businesses and organizations today (Jones and Sasser 1995). Increasing visitor satisfaction and visitor retention generates more profits, positive word-of-mouth, and lower marketing expenditures (Reichheld 1996; Heskett et al. 1990).

Satisfaction is a visitor's affective and evaluative response to the overall product or service experience (Oliver 1997). What visitors received from the investment (money, time and other resources on a trip or a visit) are psychological benefits. Thus, it is an experience that visitors receive from a visit with tangible goods (Mathieson and Wall 1982). It is also more likely that satisfied visitors will return and say positive things about a service (Tian-Cole et al. 2000).

Improving the quality of service attributes as well as improving the emotional and psychological reactions that visitors obtain from service experiences are considered important to commercial and public tourism businesses and organizations. As Otto and Ritchie (1996) stated:

the intimate, hands-on nature of the service encounter itself affords many opportunities for affective response... it has long been acknowledged that human interaction itself is an emotionally-charged process. The extended interaction with a tour guide or other service provider can also lead to experiential reactions. In other cases, as in purely recreational activities, the experiential benefits will be ends to themselves (p.168).

Hence, it is important to consider the psychological environment of the service experiences to understand the service experience fully.

### Statement of the Problem

With the growing importance of the service sector, research on perceived service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction has dominated the service literature (Oh 1999). Several studies have attempted to assess the “antecedent, mediating and consequent relationships” among the perceived service quality, perceived service value

and satisfaction constructs (Athanasopoulos 2000; Baker and Crompton 2000; Cronin et al. 2000; Oh 1999; Petrick et al. 1999; Rust and Oliver 1994; Zeithaml et al. 1996). Even though there seems to be a consensus that these constructs have an effect on behavioral intention, there is debate on the causal order and relative impact of these constructs.

Ostrom and Iacobucci (1995) stated “...it would be interesting to examine these visitors’ judgments simultaneously in one study to compare their relative effects on subsequent consequential variables” (p.18). Oh (1999) not only supported the practical significance of each construct, but also emphasized the importance of adopting a more holistic view of the construct.

The relationships among perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and visitor behavioral intention is an important issue in tourism marketing. By identifying which attributes of these variables have the stronger total effect on visitors’ future behavioral intentions will facilitate tourism businesses and organizations.

### Objectives of the Study

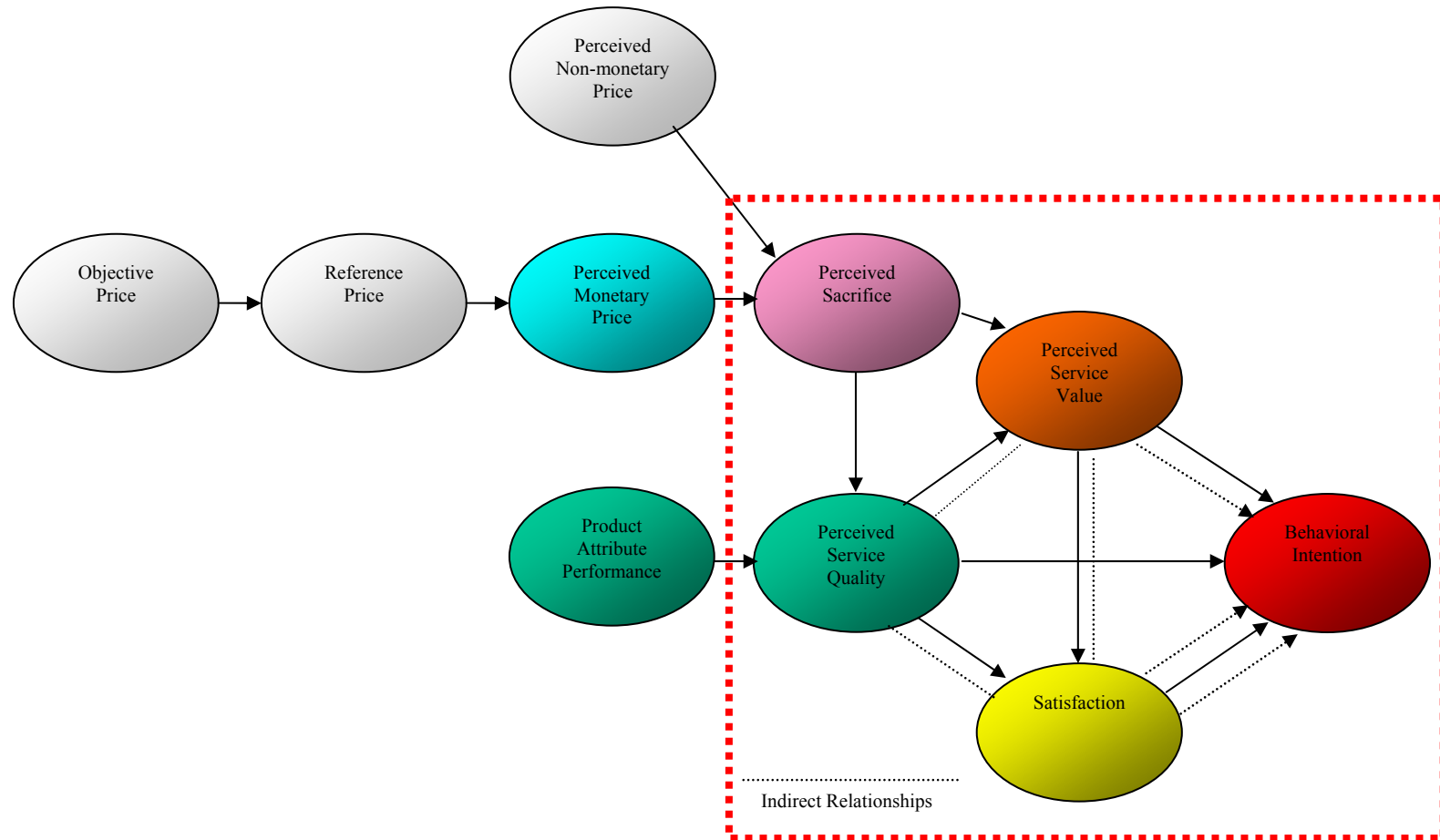
The central focus of this study is an examination of the relationships among visitors’ perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and behavioral intention. The study’s purpose is to examine the relative influence and nature of these constructs on visitors’ intended future behavior.

The specific objectives of the study are:

- (1) To determine the model that fit the data better by operationalizing perceived service quality in two different way; and
- (2) To determine which attributes of perceived service quality are the best at predicting perceived service quality and behavioral intention.

### Research Hypotheses

The review of research literature in tourism and marketing reported in chapter II reveals that partial examinations of the simple bivariate links between any of the constructs (perceived service quality, perceived service value, and satisfaction) and behavioral intentions may overemphasize the true relationship because of omitted variable bias. Ignoring and omitting important variables from the model may cause problems of model misspecification (Bagozzi 1980). Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000) contend that visitors' decision-making processes for service are best modeled when a model incorporates both the direct and indirect effect of these constructs on behavioral intention. Hence, it is important to investigate the direct/indirect effect of all relevant constructs on behavioral intentions. The model used in this study is described and discussed in detail in chapter II, but it is shown in Figure 1 to illustrate the hypothesized relationships among the constructs of interest.



**Figure 1. A Conceptual Model of the Roles of Price, Quality, and Intermediary Constructs in Determining Behavioral Intention to Visit a Festival (Destination)**

Perceived sacrifice and perceived service quality represent the determinants of the perceived service value construct. Zeithaml (1988) conceptualized perceived service value as a trade-off between visitors' perceptions of the "give" and "get" components of a service. It is suggested that visitors compare the quality of the service received ("get" component) to the sacrifice required to obtain ("give" component) (Bolton and Drew 1991a; Brady and Robertson 1999; Ostrom and Iacobucci 1995). Thus, perceived service value is conceptualized as a tradeoff between sacrifice and perceived service quality with their directionality (negative and positive) being antithetical.

The perceived service quality and perceived service value are the determinants of the satisfaction construct. Bagozzi (1992) suggests that the initial service appraisal will lead to an emotional response that, in turn, drives behavior. The cognitively oriented perceived service quality and perceived service value evaluations lead to the emotional satisfaction assessment. This recognizes the cognitive → emotive causal order which is discussed in chapter II and suggests that perceived service quality and perceived service value explain variance in the satisfaction judgment (Cronin et al. 2000).

In addition to the direct relationship articulated in the previous hypotheses, there are at least three indirect relationships among these constructs. It is included in order to extend understanding of how perceived service quality, perceived service value, and satisfaction influence behavioral intentions.

Petrack (2002a) developed a valid and reliable perceived service value scale which allow tourism providers to identify five dimensions. This would also allow them to distinguish which dimension they are performing well or poor (Petrack 2002b). Until

now, researchers (Bojanic 1996; Oh 1999, 2000; Tam 2000) in tourism field have operationalized the perceived service value based on a Zeithaml's (1988) scale. a (2002) stated that adapting tools from the field of marketing may have far reaching benefits for leisure and tourism providers. By identifying that the Petrick's (2002) scale will fit the data better supports the creation of a scale for the leisure and tourism context.

Previous research has specified the relationship between the perceived service value and satisfaction. However, an inconsistency has been found in preceding roles of each variable. Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000) stated: "Model structure appears highly dependent on the nature of the study. For instance, if the research objective is to assess customer satisfaction implications, then the model tends to be "satisfaction dominated," such the primary link to outcome measures is through satisfaction" (p.196). Some research considered that the perceived service value precedes satisfaction (Bojanic 1996; Cronin, Brady and Hult 2000; Oh 1999; Tam 2000; Zeithaml 1988) and other research suggested that satisfaction is an antecedent to perceived service value (Petrick and Backman 2002b). Bagozzi (1992) stated that the cognitive responses precede emotional response. This would support the role of perceived service quality and perceived service value as cognitive responses to a service experience and satisfaction as an emotional response (Cronin et al. 2000).

Berry and Parasuraman (1991) stated: "service quality is the foundation of services marketing" (p.4). For managerial implications, perceived service quality should be viewed as the most important perspective of a service (Tian-Cole et al. 2002). While tourism providers cannot control the psychological benefits that visitors receive from the

visit, the attributes of service quality can be controlled and manipulated by them. Baker and Crompton (2000) noted: “From a managerial perspective, it might be useful in evaluations to try and minimize the impacts of participants’ social psychological states and extraneous events, and focus their attention on the quality of performance elements that the tourism provider can most effectively control” (p.800). It will be informative for the festival and event providers if the perceived service quality has stronger effect on festival visitors’ future behavioral intention.

The study hypotheses are stated as they relate to the objectives of the study presented in this chapter. Both the null and alternative hypotheses are stated for each of the research objectives.

- H1: 1a Utilizing model 1: Satisfaction, perceived service value and perceived service quality will be related to behavioral intention.
- H1: 1b Emotional response, quality, monetary price, behavioral price and reputation will be related to perceived service value.
- H1: 1c Satisfaction will be predicted by perceived service quality and perceived service value.
- H1: 1d Perceived service quality will be the best predictor of behavioral intention.
- H2: 2a Utilizing model 2: Satisfaction, perceived service value and perceived service quality will be related to behavioral intention.
- H2: 2b Perceived service value will be predicted by perceived sacrifice and perceived service quality.
- H2: 2c Satisfaction will be predicted by perceived service value and perceived service quality.
- H2: 2d Perceived service quality will be the best predictor of behavioral intention.



- H3: Model 1 will fit the data better than model 2.
- H4: The better model from H3 will fit the data better with perceived service value leading to satisfaction not the opposite direction.
- H5: The resultant model from H4 will result in perceived service quality being the best predictor of behavioral intention.
- H6: Perceived service quality attributes related to ‘generic features’ will be the best predictor of overall perceived service quality.
- H7: Perceived service quality attributes related to ‘generic features’ will be the best predictor of behavioral intention.

### Definition of Terms

The key terms in the study are defined in this section.

#### *Key Terms in This Study*

Festival: “A festival is a public, themed celebration (Getz 1991, p. 54). It must be public, as opposed to private parties and celebration since all festivals have social and cultural meaning to the host community. Visitors in festivals are likely to be seeking cultural enrichment, education, novelty and socialization (Crompton and MacKay 1989).

Objective Price: Objective price is a raw price, unit price (McCarville 1989). It is the actual price of a product or service (Jacoby and Olson 1977).

Reference Price: Reference price is stored in a visitor's memory and serves as a base of comparison for future visitations (Han et al. 2001). It is the encoded price that is based on past pricing experience with a product that is stored in a visitor's memory. Visitors evaluate the objective price of the places they are considering visiting against the reference price. Thus, visitors do not respond to absolute prices but rather to how an objective price relates to the reference price (Thaler 1985).

Perceived Monetary Price: Perceived monetary price is the visitors' representation of perception or subjective perception of objective price (Jacoby and Olson 1977).

Perceived Non-Monetary Price: Perceived non-monetary price is assessed by measures of time and effort associated with a service (Cronin et al. 2000). Time costs, search costs, and psychic costs all enter either explicitly or implicitly into the visitors' perception of products or services in which they invest (Zeithaml 1988).

Perceived Sacrifice: Perceived sacrifice is what is given up or sacrificed to acquire a service (Heskett et al. 1990; Zeithaml 1988). It is a multidimensional construct, which is measured by indicators representing visitors' perceptions of the monetary (price) and the non-monetary (time and effort) dimensions of price associated with acquisition and use of a service.

Perceived Service Quality: Perceived service quality is a user's judgment about a service's overall excellence or superiority (Berry et al. 1988). In the recreation and tourism field, perceived service quality has been operationalized as the quality of opportunity. Quality of opportunity consists of the attributes of a

service that are controlled and manipulated by the service provider (Crompton and Love 1995).

Perceived Service Value: Zeithaml (1988) identified four definitions of visitor value; (1) value is low price; (2) value is whatever I want in a product; (3) value is the quality I get for the price I pay; and (4) value is what I get for what I give. However, she contended that the four could be summed into a single definition “...perceived value is the consumers’ overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given” (Zeithaml 1988, p.14). Most subsequent research (Bojanic 1996; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996; Woodruff and Gardial 1996; Zeithaml 1988) has concurred that an assessment of perceived value should include a comparison of what a visitor receives to what the visitor gives for the attainment of a product or service. Thus, in this dissertation, perceived service value is conceptualized as being a function of the interaction between perceived sacrifice and perceived service quality.

Satisfaction: Satisfaction is a “summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer’s prior feelings about the consumption experience” (Oliver 1981, p.27). It is the visitor’s fulfillment response to drives, motives or needs which describes a consumer’s experiences-and represents the end state of a psychological process (Oliver 1997). In the context of festivals, tourism and recreation, Crompton and Love (1995) defined satisfaction as visitors’ quality of experience which is a

psychological outcome resulting from their participation in recreation or tourism activities.

Behavioral Intention: Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) suggested that there are two perspectives (favorable and unfavorable) in behavioral intention. A favorable behavioral intention represents the praise and preference for the firm over other companies and the increasing purchase volume or agreement to pay premium. An unfavorable behavioral intention indicated complaining behaviors mainly.

The theory of reasoned action suggests that behavior is determined by a visitor's intention to perform or not to perform the behavior. The behavioral intention is determined by attitude toward performing the behavior and subjective norm. Attitude toward the behavior refers to a person's positive or negative evaluation toward performing the behavior, while subjective norm refers to the person's perception of the social pressure for him/her to perform or not to perform the behavior (Trafimow and Borrie 1999).

### Contribution of the Study

The primary goal of this study is to understand the strength of the interrelationships among the constructs of perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction which would better equip tourism (festival) businesses and organizations to adjust their services and marketing efforts to enhance positive

behavioral intention. Attributes of service quality can be more useful than either satisfaction or perceived value items since festival and event managers can control and manipulate the items. This would provide useful insights to event and festival providers to better prepared for visitors' repeat visitation in the future.

This study will test alternative operationalization of the perceived service quality. By testing the different causal order among the variables, the study will enhance conceptual understanding of the causal order and relative impact of perceived service quality, perceived service value, and satisfaction on behavioral intentions in a tourism context. Finally, it is hoped that the study contributes to proposing an integrated approach for better understanding of interrelationship among variables that explain visitors' behavioral intentions in a tourism context.

### Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation will consist of five chapters. The second chapter describes the nature of the constructs of perceived monetary price, perceived sacrifice, perceived service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction. It also investigates conceptualizations that have been proposed of the relationship between perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and visitors' behavioral intention. Chapter III describes the methods that will be employed in this research. It discusses the study's research design, sample selection, and data collection. The operationalization of each construct involved in the study will be discussed in this chapter. Chapter IV will

report the results obtained from the empirical study. First, it will report the sample's demographic profile and then it will evaluate the validity and reliability of the scales used to measure each construct. Structural equation modeling procedures will be used to test the model and investigate the total effect of each variable on behavioral intention. The results of these will be reported. Finally, the results of hypothesis testing will be discussed. The final chapter will discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the study's results. This chapter will also include discussion of the study's limitations and offers suggestions for future research.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Figure 1 shows the conceptual model which has been developed to guide this dissertation. The four constructs which are of central interest in this study are delimited by the serrated line on the figure. The model shows that *perceived service quality* is a function of perceived sacrifice and product attribute performance. Perceived sacrifice consists both of monetary and non-monetary price elements, while perceived monetary price results from the mediating influence of reference price on objective price. *Perceived service value* is determined by the interaction of perceived sacrifice and perceived service quality. Perceived service quality and service value combine to determine level of *satisfaction*. The constructs of *service quality*, *service value* and *satisfaction* influence the fourth construct, *behavioral intention*.

For many service providers, there is a growing perceptions of importance of delivering quality service, satisfying and valuable experience to visitors (Petrick 1999). As more service providers have stepped into culturally diverse markets, understanding these constructs has become increasingly important (Mattila 1999). During the last two decades, an understanding of each of these constructs (perceived quality, perceived value, and satisfaction) as well as how they relate to each other has preoccupied services researchers (Cronin et al. 2000). However, Petrick (2002b) noted: “tourism providers (festival managers) often use these conceptually different constructs interchangeably,

thus utilizing only one measure (or worse yet, no measure) to evaluate the antecedents of behavioral intention. By understanding the relationships among these constructs and their relative influence in determining behavioral intention to revisit, festival managers would be better equipped to adjust their services and marketing efforts to enhance positive behavioral intention (p.2)".

Higher perceived quality and levels of satisfaction are perceived to result positive aspects in behavioral intentions. They will generate increased loyalty and revisitation in the future, greater tolerance of higher price, and an enhanced reputation among the social circle (Baker and Crompton 2000). Perceived service value is a direct precursor to a purchase decision and a direct consequence of perceived service quality (Zeithaml 1988). It has been indicated that these three constructs are quite distinct (Caruana et al. 2000).

Tian-Cole, Crompton and Willson (2002) concluded that repeat visitation and positive word-of-mouth can be result through improved service quality and visitors' satisfaction. The study also found that perceived service quality and satisfaction have independent effect on visitors' future behavioral intentions. Petrick (2002b) also found the antecedent role with higher perceptions of value to behavioral intentions.

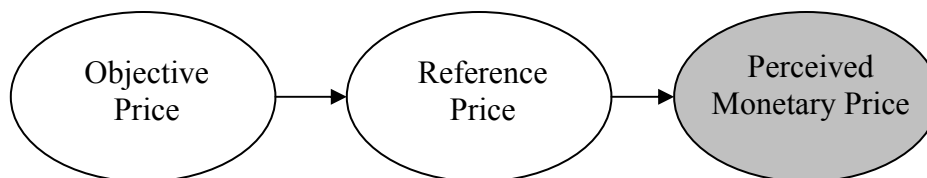
From a managerial standpoint, these relationships are only important if the interactions and relative influence of visitors' perceived quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioral intention are understood. Hence, the purpose of this study is to examine the relative influence and nature of their interactions. The first part of the literature review in this chapter describes the nature of the constructs of perceived monetary price, perceived sacrifice, perceived service quality, perceived service value



and satisfaction. The second part investigates conceptualizations that have been proposed of the relationship between perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and visitors' behavioral intention.

### Perceived Monetary Price

Price significantly influences visitors' purchase behavior and consequently an organization's revenues (Han et al. 2001). For the service provider, price is an important decision variable that influences the profitability of an organization. For visitors, price represents part of the sacrifice they have to make to receive the service. Visitors are likely to use various cues or types of information when evaluating alternate destinations. Among the types of information cues visitors evaluate, the use of price to arrive at a perception of product quality has been one of the most frequently examined (Monroe and Krishnan 1985).



**Figure 2. Perceived Monetary Price**

Product attributes and sacrifice are likely to be the major variables considered by visitors when evaluating alternate destinations. Thus, responsive marketers are likely consistently to seek knowledge about how visitors use product attribute and price information in their evaluations of destinations (Chang and Wildt 1994). It has been suggested that the link between product attributes and price, and intention to visit, is influenced by the intervening constructs of perceived price, perceived service quality, and perceived service value (Zeithaml 1988).

In the hospitality literature, price has been used as a strategic variable in positioning hotels (Lewis 1990; Shaw 1992). Shaw (1992) examined economic and marketing approaches to pricing which had been adopted, and developed a model that identified minimum and maximum price thresholds. She proposed that visitors' price perceptions were important in developing a price range for positioning, and tactical price decisions made within this range would not negatively affect brand image.

Erickson and Johansson (1985) suggested a visitor's perception of monetary price is derived from the interaction of the objective (actual) price and the visitor's reference price (Figure 2). Frequently, objective price is cited as being a key element in assessing service quality, service value and intention to visit (Chang and Wildt 1994), but the literature has consistently identified perceived price as a relevant intermediary variable in the price-quality-value relationship (Monroe and Chapman 1987; Zeithaml 1988). Therefore, it is important to utilize the perceived price rather than an objective price in order to investigate the price-quality-value relationship.

Jacoby and Olson (1977) distinguished between objective price which was defined as the actual price of a product, and perceived monetary price which they defined as the price encoded by a visitor. A broader definition of perceived price recognizing that it is more than only monetary price was offered by Zeithaml (1988, p.10), “what is given up or sacrificed to obtain a product.” Visitors do not always know or remember the actual price of products and services, so they often rely on encoded prices when making decisions (Dickson and Sawyer 1985).

### *Reference Price*

The encoded price is generally known as the reference price. Reference price is based on past pricing experience with a product that is stored in a visitor’s memory and it serves as a point of comparison for future visits. Visitors evaluate the objective price of the places they are considering visiting against the reference price. Thus, visitors do not respond to absolute prices but rather to how an objective price relates to the reference price (Thaler 1985). Increased emphasis on promotion and frequent discounting has stimulated substantial academic and managerial interest in better understanding the role of reference price in visitor decision-making (Han et al. 2001). A considerable volume of research on reference price and its role in explaining visitor choice has emerged (Mayhew and Winer 1992).

Visitors compare objective price to their internal reference price when making destination choices. The internal reference price is the overall price level or range the

visitor perceives to be fair and appropriate for the product category (Winer 1986). Zeithaml (1988) used a means-end chain approach to identify the general directions of the effect of objective price and reference price on perceived monetary price. She concluded that a higher reference price is likely to induce visitors to perceive the objective price as being relatively low and vice versa.

Kalyanaram and Winer (1995) stated that reference price has a consistent and significant impact on visitor demand. They proposed three empirical generalizations that have strong-support from the marketing literature. First, there is convincing evidence that visitors use reference prices in making choices. Second, visitors rely on past prices as part of the reference price formation process. Third, visitors have been found to be more sensitive to “losses” (observed prices higher than reference prices), than “gains.”

The derivation of internal reference price is explained (i) by Adaptation-Level Theory (Helson 1964), which is based on the assumption that stimuli are judged with respect to internal norms representing the pooled effects of present and past experience; (ii) by Social Judgment Theory (Sherif 1963) which explains the concept of latitude of acceptance; and (iii) by Prospect Theory (Kahneman and Tversky 1979) which relates price changes to potential gains and losses.

### *Adaptation-level Theory*

Adaptation-level Theory (Helson 1964) suggests different categories of stimuli might affect the internal responses of visitors. Helson (1964) suggested that the level of adaptation is the pooled effect of three classes of stimuli which he termed: focal, background or contextual, and residual stimuli. He stated that visitors are likely to evaluate price through “a weighted product of these three classes of stimuli” (p.58). His conceptualization suggests that changing the contextual or residual stimuli may influence the perception of visitors toward price changes (Kim and Crompton 2001).

Focal stimuli are those to which the visitor is exposed when visiting festivals, state parks, or other attractions. The contextual and residual stimuli have strong influence on focal stimuli since they provide a framework within which an encoded message is evaluated. McCarville (1991) stated that contextual stimuli represent background cues within the valuation setting. In his study, cost-of-service-provision information was used as a key contextual stimulus. According to Crompton and Lamb (1986), contextual cues could be used to change visitors’ perceptions of value without actually improving facilities or services. Residual stimuli also reflect the influence of internal processes. Kalyanaram and Little (1994) suggest that a new stimulus encountered by an individual is judged against a background of previous experience in the category. Thus, the past experience forms an individual’s reference scale. Past experience and level of involvement are likely to be considered as residual stimuli (McCarville 1991). Adaptation level is defined as “a weighted geometric mean of all

stimuli impinging upon the organism from without and all stimuli affection behavior from within” (Helson 1964, p.59).

### *Social Judgment Theory*

Sherif's (1963) social judgment theory suggests that visitors have a latitude of acceptance, around their price beliefs. Latitude of acceptance is defined as that range of stimulus values judged acceptable by members of a group, while latitude of rejection refers to the range found objectionable (Sherif 1963, p.148). Petroschius and Monroe (1987) contend that latitude of acceptance and internal reference price provide the bases against how prices are judged by visitors. McCarville (1991) suggested that social judgment theory is helpful because it identifies the extent to which visitors develop latitudes or ranges when establishing opinions and preferences.

### *Prospect Theory*

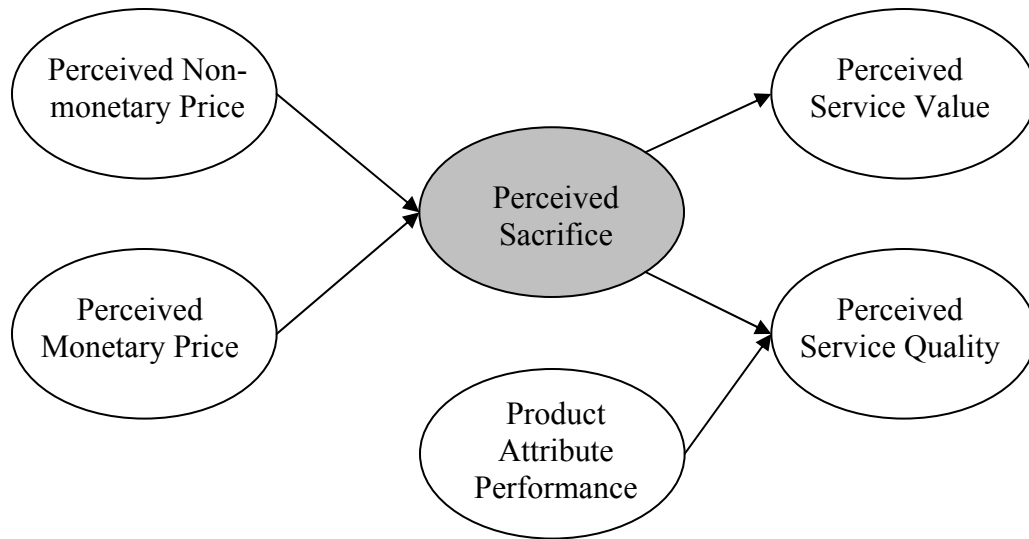
Prospect theory does not assume invariance like utility theory does. Rather, it suggests that visitors attend to the prospect of gains or losses and to the way in which those gains or losses are described. Therefore, the way alternative outcomes are framed in terms of loss or gain may influence visitors' assessments and expectations (McCarville et al. 1993).

In their study, McCarville et al. (1993) used two variables suggested by prospect theory to alter subjects' internal reference price. The first variable was related to

possible “outcomes.” In spite of an assumption that visitors may be responsive to potential gain (Martin and Sell 1986), only reference to potential loss was found likely to alter existing expectations. This is consistent with prospect theory which states that visitors attend more to disappointment associated with losing than with the pleasure associated with gaining the same amount (Kahneman and Tversky 1979). The second variable was “recipient identity.” McCarville et al. (1993) tested the notion that in the context of public leisure services, people were receptive to the notion of helping others. Consequently, they tested the effectiveness of message indicating that potential outcome may be influenced by the identity of the recipient of that outcome.

### Perceived Sacrifice

Perceived sacrifice is defined as what is given up or sacrificed to acquire a service (Heskett et al. 1990; Zeithaml 1988). It is a multidimensional construct, which is measured by indicators representing visitors’ perceptions of the monetary and the non-monetary dimensions of price associated with acquisition and use of a service (Figure 3). Perceived monetary price is usually assessed by a direct measure of price paid for the service, while non-monetary price can be assessed by measures of time and effort associated with a service (Cronin et al. 2000).



**Figure 3. Perceived Sacrifice**

Monetary price includes direct price and travel costs paid by service users (Crompton and Lamb 1986). Travel costs are the actual costs of transportation necessary to use the service. They are a function of the distance between a user's home and the site at which the service is offered and the cost of the relevant means of transportation. Non-monetary elements of price include the opportunity costs of time, embarrassment costs, and effort costs.

Opportunity costs refer to resources that festival visitors forego because their time (and their dollars, when a direct price is paid) is invested in visiting festival. Visiting a festival may mean time lost from work and the opportunity to visit alternate festivals as well. In addition to the time taken to use a service (consumption time),



visitors may incur two other types of time costs, travel time and waiting time. Embarrassment costs may not be applicable in the context of festival; they can be imposed when there is stigma associated with being eligible for programs in public welfare, housing, and health care. Many eligible potential clients want to avoid completing the application process because of pressures and indignities. Effort costs are comprised of personal energy costs, information costs and psychic costs.

In a restaurant context, consumers who perceive the monetary sacrifice to be substantial may invest time in collecting coupons, reviewing advertisements in newspapers, and traveling to multiple restaurants to obtain best value. For these consumers, perceived value is likely to increase, as the monetary sacrifice decreases. Those who are less monetary price-conscious may value store proximity, ready-to-serve food products, and home delivery even at the expense of higher costs since time, energy, and effort are perceived to them to be more important resources than money (Oh 2000). The focus on perceived value in restaurant marketing reorganizes that marketers consider perceived service quality to be strongly influenced by perceived sacrifice (Oh 2000).

Chang and Wildt (1994) concluded that, both intrinsic (i.e., how the purchase makes you feel) and extrinsic (i.e., reputation of the product/service) attributes, objective price, and reference price will likely influence perceived quality. Although there is some variance in the reported findings, a positive relationship between price and perceived service quality has been identified in a number of studies (Rao and Monroe 1988; Zeithaml 1988). Findings indicate that objective price has a positive effect on perceived

quality under low to moderate levels of intrinsic attribute information, but little influence under high levels of information. High importance and amount of intrinsic information diminish the influence of objective price on perceived quality. This result supports the notion that price effect on perceived service quality is not universal and is influenced by various situational variables (Jacoby and Olson 1977; Monroe and Krishnan 1985).

### Perceived Service Quality

#### *Definitions of Perceived Service Quality*

Providers position themselves effectively when they deliver higher levels of service quality to visitors (Brown and Swartz 1989; Parasuraman et al. 1988). However, service quality is an elusive and abstract construct that is difficult to define and measure (Brown and Swartz 1989; Carman 1990; Parasuraman et al. 1985, 1988). Further, Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1990) noted that it is more difficult for consumers of services, such as tourists, to evaluate quality, than it is for consumers of tangible products because of their intangibility, heterogeneity, and inseparability.

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) adopted the disconfirmation paradigm to explain perceptions of service quality. These authors developed the SERVQUAL scale which measured service quality as the difference between visitors' expectations about the performance of a provider and their assessment of the actual performance. The SERVQUAL scale (Parasuraman et al. 1988) has five components: tangibles (the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel, and communication materials),

reliability (the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately), responsiveness (willingness to help customers and provide prompt service), assurance (knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence), and empathy (caring, individualized attention provided to customers). These five components are operationalized by a 22-item scale which aims to measure consumers' normative expectations and then is reapplied to obtain consumers' perceptions of the service performance. It was developed from focus groups and from industry applications undertaken by the authors (Parasuraman et al. 1985, 1988, and Zeithaml et al. 1990 for a comprehensive review). Subsequently, related research in a leisure context emerged in the area of service quality (Crompton and MacKay 1989; Crompton 1991; Crompton and Love 1995; Fick and Ritchie 1991; LeBlanc 1992; MacKay and Crompton 1988, 1990; Ostrowski et al. 1993; Vogt and Fesenmaier, 1995).

In the recreation and tourism field, perceived service quality has been viewed as the quality of opportunities, and it is likely to be related to quality of experience. Recreation satisfaction is the realization of desired outcomes or benefits, but the production of these benefits has to begin with the availability of raw recreation resources (Brown 1988). These raw recreation resources are recreation opportunities provided by management.

Crompton and MacKay (1989) defined service quality as the quality of service attributes. They investigated perceptions of the importance of service quality dimensions for participants engaged in four different types of recreation programs characterized as: (1) high staff intensive/high facility intensive, (2) high staff

intensive/low facility intensive, (3) low staff intensive/high facility intensive, and (4) low staff intensive/low facility intensive. They found that in a low staff/high facility intensive activity, the ambiance of the facility and equipment (i.e. the tangibles) were likely to be of crucial importance to a high quality outcome, whereas in a high staff/low facility intensive activity, the tangible elements were not likely to be crucial to high quality. They also found that the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately was a crucial and important dimension of service quality among those using recreation facilities.

Service attributes are composed of elements of the opportunities that management provides for recreationists. They are controlled and manipulated by suppliers. Using this perspective, Crompton and Love (1995) renamed service quality in the tourism field as “quality of opportunity.” Quality of opportunity consists of the attributes of a service that are controlled and manipulated by the service provider. Researchers have invested effort into measuring service quality using this definition (Crompton and MacKay 1989; Fick and Ritchie 1991; Mackay and Crompton 1990).

Hamilton, Crompton and More (1991) investigated the importance of service quality in the context of parks. The study reported significant levels of association between the level of perceived service quality on each dimension and the particular park that respondents used. However, the authors pointed out that “a park is an abstract idea subject to wide and varied interpretations, rather than a standardized physical object. Consequently, parks are inherently diverse and characterized by their heterogeneity rather than their homogeneity...The results emphasize that service quality studies in

parks should be park specific” (p.218). Much like parks, festivals are heterogeneous, and are often interpreted differently. In this respect, festivals are similar in character to parks.

Perceived quality can be defined as the visitors’ judgment about a product or service’s overall excellence or superiority (Zeithaml 1988). She noted the perceived service quality as (1) different from objective or actual quality, (2) a higher level abstraction rather than a specific attribute of a product, (3) a global assessment that in some cases resembles attitude, and (4) a judgment usually made within a visitor’s evoked set. Bojanic (1991) suggested that because of the lack of tangible evidence associated with services, it is more difficult to evaluate service quality.

Lutz (1986) contends that perceived quality could either be affective or cognitive. In his view, the greater the proportion of attributes that can be assessed before purchase (search attributes) compared to those that can be assessed only during consumption (experience attributes), the more likely it is that quality is a higher level cognitive judgment. Conversely, as the proportion of experience attributes increases, quality tends to be an affective judgment. Thus, Lutz concludes that affective quality is more likely for services (where experience attributes dominate) than cognitive quality, which is more likely for durable goods and industrial products (where search attributes dominate).

Attributes that are used to determine perceived quality can be categorized as either intrinsic or extrinsic cues (Zeithaml 1988). Intrinsic cues are related to the physical composition of the product or service itself. For example, intrinsic attributes of a festival may include the theme of the festival and how convenient the accommodations

are. Intrinsic attributes cannot be changed without altering the nature of the product or service itself (Olson and Jacoby 1973). Extrinsic cues are product-related but are not part of the physical product itself. The extrinsic cues in a festival may include the cost of the tour package, the level of advertising and the perceived image of that festival.

#### *Operationalization of Perceived Service Quality*

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry's (1985) SERVQUAL scale suggests that the difference between visitors' expectations about the performance of service providers and their assessment of the actual performance of those providers measures the perception of service quality. However, Carman (1990) expressed the concern of Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry's (1988) study. He found "serious problems with the value of the expectations battery as proposed, the ability to administer it, and the factor analysis of the difference between perceptions and expectations (p.51)." Other researchers consider simple performance-based measures of service quality to be superior (Bolton and Drew 1991 a, b; Churchill and Surprenant 1982; Mazis et al. 1975; Woodruff et al. 1983).

Carman (1990) contends that there is little if any theoretical or empirical evidence to support use of the expectations-performance gap in measuring service quality. Further, practical and psychometric problems have been identified in using difference scores (Carman 1990; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Babakus and Boller 1992; Teas 1993). For example, the creation of a new construct by subtracting one measurement (expectations) from another measurement (perceptions) in subsequent data analysis has been criticized (Babakus and Boller 1992; Brown 1988; Carman 1990;

Churchill and Peter 1993; Cronbach and Furby 1970; Teas 1993). The criticism has resulted in some preferring a direct measurement of perception against expectation standard instead of using independent measures of each variable (Brown et al. 1993; Carman 1990; Teas 1993; Williams 1988). There appears to be more support for the performance-based measure than the disconfirmation measure in the empirical literature.

An empirical study conducted by Cronin and Taylor (1992) tested the scale across four industries: banking, pest control, dry cleaning, and fast food. Results indicated that the performance-only scale explained more of the variation in service quality than did the disconfirmation scale. Their empirical results suggested that the SERVQUAL model was confirmed only in two of the four industries. Results supported use of performance-based measures (SERVPERF) of service quality rather than the disconfirmation scale.

Carman (1990) criticized the disconfirmation scale stating, “Based on what they had experienced in the past, respondents were asked what they expected and then asked what they perceived. All respondent beliefs were entirely ex post. These expectation responses can be of little value.” (p. 47). Boulding, Kalra, Staelin and Zeithaml (1993) supported the performance-based paradigm concluding: “Our results are incompatible with both the one-dimensional view of expectations and the gap formation for service quality. Instead, we find that service quality is directly influence only by perceptions [of performance]” (p.24). In the context of a festival, the limitation of using the disconfirmation paradigm can be rectified by asking visitors for their expectations before they enter the site and for their perceptions of performance when they exit the site.

In the recreation and leisure fields, the discrepancy between expectations and performance has been measured differently than in the marketing field (Williams 1988). In the marketing literature, a common approach has been to measure perceived disconfirmation directly, by requiring consumers to respond with explicit judgments about whether a product is “better than” or “worse than” they expected (Carman 1990). In the leisure literature, discrepancy has been measured as the observed difference between ratings of expected attributes and performance on those attributes. Visitors at Dickens on the Strand were asked to rate the expectations instrument before entering the site and they were given a questionnaire containing the perceptions of performance measures and were asked to mail it back after they returned home (Crompton and Love 1995).

In contrast to the findings of Churchill and Suprenant (1982) and Cronin and Taylor (1992), Bolton and Drew (1991b) found that “disconfirmation explains a larger proportion of the variance quality than performance” (p.383). However, disconfirmation was measured by better/same/worse response categories, and expectations were not measured directly.

The disconfirmation paradigm, a central concept of the quality construct, directs that measuring expectations is an essential component of operationalizing and evaluating quality. However, requiring the measurement of expectations has been challenged since empirical studies have consistently reported that measures of performance only have higher predictive validity than do measures that incorporate expectations (Childress and Crompton 1997). Crompton and Love (1995) reported: “The major findings were



unequivocal. The best predictors of quality were the performance-based operationalizations; the least accurate predictors were the disconfirmation-based operationalizations” (p.28). Similar findings have been reported by others in the recreation and tourism literature (Dorfman 1979; Fick and Ritchie 1991) and in the marketing literature (Babakus and Boller 1992; Babakus and Mangold 1992; Boulding et al. 1993; Brown et al. 1993; Carman 1990; Cronin and Taylor 1992, 1994). These empirical results seem to be incongruent with the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm in defining the quality construct, and they appear to challenge the validity of the discrepancy measure (Childress and Crompton 1997).

Mazis, Ahtola and Klippel (1975) showed that the performance dimension predicted behavioral intentions. Similarly, Churchill and Surprenant (1982) supported the use of only performance perceptions to measure service quality. The work of other researchers (Babakus and Boller 1992; Babakus and Mangold 1992; Brown, Churchill and Peter 1993; Peter, Churchill and Brown 1993) also supported performance-based measures of service quality over disconfirmation measures.

Bolton and Drew (1991a) found that the addition of importance weights did not improve either the performance or expectation scales and that the SERVPERF measure performed better than the SERVQUAL instrument for measuring perceived service quality. SERVPERF seemed to be consistent with findings in the satisfaction and attitude literatures (Cronin and Taylor 1992).

The SERVQUAL model has been modified and applied to a hospitality context with differing results. Bojanic and Rosen (1994) found six factors instead of five factors

in identifying restaurant customers' expectations and perceived performance levels. Getty and Thompson (1994) attempted to develop a scale, LODQUAL, which used performance-only measures in the lodging industry. They found that visitors' intentions to provide positive word of mouth were primarily a function of perceived quality of the property.

Childress and Crompton (1997) contend that the reason researchers failed to prove the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm to be an essential component of operationalizing and evaluating quality is that they have failed to operationalize expectations effectively in their measures of the quality construct. Their study investigated a number of alternative measures for evaluating quality of performance (opportunity) which have been proposed. It empirically compared the relative utility of seven quality-of-performance (opportunity) measures by assessing them against 14 criteria. Four different instruments were used in their study. The first consisted of an expectations questionnaire that was completed by the selected sample before they entered the site. It contained 20 festival attributes and requested respondents' addresses to facilitate subsequent follow-up mailing. The remaining three instruments used a different measurement method to operationalize quality in the context of a festival. The instruments asked respondents to evaluate their perceptions of performance quality. The first instrument was a relative measure that asked respondents to rate the quality of the festival compared to their desired level in a one-column format. The second instrument used a measure which compared level of performance quality to their minimum acceptable and desired quality levels in a two-column format, while a third instrument

asked respondents to rate their minimum acceptable and desired levels of performance quality for festivals in general and their perceptions of this particular festival's quality of performance in a three-column format.

The highest predictive value was obtained from the perceptions of performance measure while the perceptions-minus-expectations differential exhibited least predictive power. Although the perceptions format offered the most predictive power, the authors noted that it offers little diagnostic potential and, indeed, may result in inappropriate priorities being established. Hence, they concluded the most desirable alternatives were the three-column and perceptions-minus-expectations format.

Baker and Crompton's (2000) study used a perceptions-only measure since comparative studies of the predictive validity of alternative operationalizations of quality have consistently demonstrated higher levels of predictive validity for perceptions measures than for perceptions-minus-expectations measures. The goodness-of-fit for the perceptions-only measure of the quality was strong [ $\chi^2 (19) = 17.95$ ,  $P = .53$ ; AGFI = .97] and it had a significant direct effect on visitor satisfaction. Both quality and satisfaction had a significant direct effect on visitors' behavioral intentions. The goodness-of-fit for the disconfirmation measure of the quality was weaker [ $\chi^2 (19) = 25.16$ ,  $P = .16$ ; AGFI = .91]. Although quality and satisfaction had significant direct effects on behavioral intention, the indirect effect of quality on behavioral intention was not significant.

Using LISREL, findings from Baker and Crompton's (2000) study indicated that the disconfirmation measure was somewhat inferior to that of the perceptions-only

measure. This was consistent with previous findings that the perceptions-only measurement is superior to disconfirmation measurement (Babakus and Boller 1992; Babakus and Mongold 1992; Boulding et al. 1993; Carman 1990; Childress and Crompton 1997; Crompton and Love 1995; Cronin and Taylor 1992, 1994). The superior fit of the perception-only measure may be attributable to respondents finding it easier to answer perceptions questions compared to disconfirmation questions (Childress and Crompton 1997).

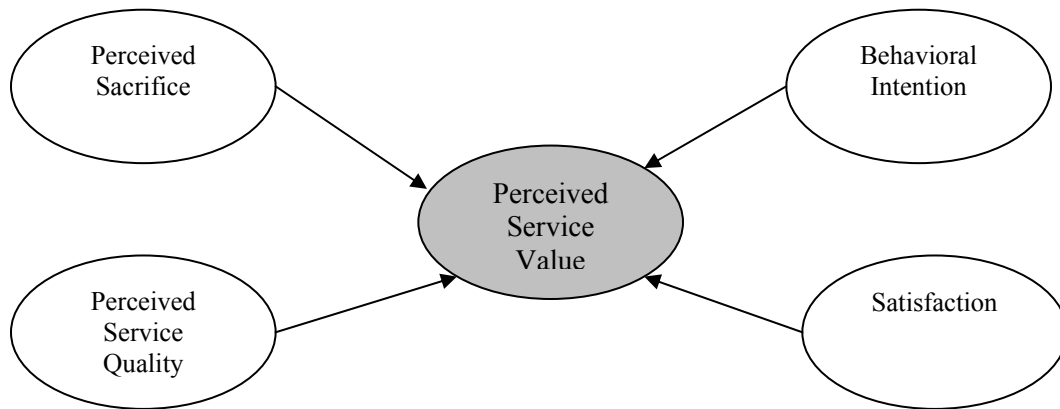
Baker and Compton (2000) suggested that festival managers should focus their evaluative resources on assessing both perceived quality and satisfaction level of visitors. While the total effect of satisfaction represents a useful predictor of their behavioral intentions, it is substantially lower than the total effect of the perceived quality. From the festival manager's point of view, measuring of performance quality is likely to be more useful since managers can control it. They also found that enhanced perceived quality leads to stronger positive behavioral intentions, and that visitor satisfaction does add to the explanatory power of quality.

### Perceived Service Value

Perceived service value has been recognized recently as one of the most salient determinants of purchase intention and repeat visitation (Bolton and Drew 1991b; Chang and Wildt 1994; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996) and received relatively increasing attention in

the marketing literature (Caruna et al. 2000; Cronin et al. 2000) and in the recreation and tourism literature (Oh 1999; Petrick 2002 a, b; Tam 2000).

Zeithaml (1988) identified four definitions of consumer value: (1) value is low price; (2) value is whatever I want in a product; (3) value is the quality I get for the price I pay; and (4) value is that I get for what I give. However, she contended that the four could be summed into a single definition "...perceived value is the consumers' overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml 1988, p.14). This implies that perceived service value is a trade-off between visitors' perceptions of the "give" and "get" components of a service. Most subsequent researchers have concurred that an assessment of perceived value should include a comparison of what a visitor receives to what the visitor gives for the attainment of a product or service (Bojanic 1996; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996; Woodruff and Gardial 1996; Zeithaml 1988). Thus, in the model used in this dissertation, perceived service value is conceptualized as being a function of the interaction between perceived sacrifice and perceived service quality (Figure 4).



**Figure 4. Perceived Service Value**

Perceived value has emerged as an intervening construct between sacrifice and purchase intention (Dodds and Monroe 1985; Zeithaml 1988). Tam (2000) contended that perceived service value is likely to be highly associated with perceived service quality and visitor satisfaction.

Bolton and Drew (1991) provided empirical support for the linkage between perceived quality and perceived value. Their findings suggested that perceived service quality explains a major portion of variance in service value, and that perceived value was a better measure of visitors' overall evaluation of a service than perceived service quality.

Perceived value is conceptualized from two different but complementary theoretical perspectives (Jayanti and Ghosh 1996). They stated that “based on the social

psychology and marketing literatures, perceived value is considered to be a behavioral outcome based on post-consumption experiences and perceived quality is proposed as a leading indicator of perceived value (Bolton and Drew 1991; Zeithaml 1988) and the other perspective, based on the economic literature, considers perceived value from a utilitarian point of view and proposes transaction and acquisition utilities as determinants” (Thaler 1985) (p.7).

In Jayanti and Ghosh’s (1996) study, Thaler (1985) offers the utilitarian perspective that perceived service value is a function of acquisition utility and transaction utility. Acquisition utility encompasses non-monetary costs involved in a purchase and the subjective benefits derived from a purchase. Urbany, Bearden and Weilbaker (1988) define acquisition utility as the residual pleasure obtained from the purchase of a product less the displeasure of paying for it. Transaction utility “depends solely on the perceived merits of the deal” (Thaler 1985, p.205). Thus, transaction utility is conceptualized as a more objective and monetary measure of utility, whereas acquisition utility is treated as a more subjective and non-monetary measure of utility (Jayanti and Ghosh 1996).

Researchers have found it difficult to measure visitors’ perceptions of transaction value and to develop a scale that discriminates it adequately from perceived acquisition value (Jayanti and Ghosh 1996). However, Grewal, et al. (1998) developed measurements of both acquisition and transaction values. Their nine point Likert-type scale measured acquisition value that built on past scales of perceived value (e.g. Dodds, Monroe and Grewal 1991). The items that are used in their study attempted to include

the concept of trade-off between a product's benefits and the cost of its acquisition. Transaction value was measured with a three-item Likert-type scale that focused on buyers' pleasure from finding and taking advantage of a price deal.

Jayanti and Ghosh (1996) propose an integrative perspective suggesting that price perceptions when coupled with quality perception formed the basis for visitors' judgments of perceived service value. In their study, an integrated model showed a better fit with the data than either the behavioral or utilitarian models alone. Adding price information (expected and actual price paid) increased the explanatory power of the model.

In the marketing literature, it has been reported that high price had a negative effect on perceptions of a product's value for money and consumers' willingness-to-buy durable goods, but a positive effect on perceived product quality (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal 1991). These researchers also found that perceived quality had a significant effect on perceived value. Perceived value has been shown to be enhanced by quality, durability, style and reputation (Ramaswamy et al. 1993).

Gooding (1995) conducted a study comparing the predictive power of quality with the predictive power of perceived value, defined in terms of both quality and sacrifice on the choice of a service. He found that perceived value was a better predictor of choice of service than was quality. Perceived service value was influenced differently by price, quality, service friendliness, and service customization under different conditions (Ostrom and Iacobucci 1995).



In the recreation and tourism field Petrick (2002a) developed a 25-item multi-dimensional scale for measuring perceived service value in the context of tourism. The scale consisted of five interrelated, but unique dimensions: quality, emotional response, monetary price, behavioral price and reputation. Using two separate samples, the generated items were found to saliently load on their predicted factors. Further, all of the resultant standardized path coefficients were found to assist significantly in the prediction of their assigned factors ( $p < .01$ ).

#### *Issues in the Measurement of Perceived Service Value*

For managers and researchers, the perceived service value has become an increasing interest (Parasuramn 1997). Parasuraman and Grewal (2000) supported that perceived service quality enhances perceived service value that in return, contributes to visitors' loyalty. They also noted that the perceived service value plays the key role as a determinant of customer loyalty. Petrick (2002a) contended that the previous research do not present measures for collecting perceived value data. He suggested the problem with a single-dimensional measure which assuming a shared meaning of value among visitors. In recreation and tourism literature, Petrick (2002a) developed a five-dimension scale for measuring perceived service value. The scale was judged to have content validity by a panel of experts. The five dimensions were quality, emotional response, monetary price, behavioral price and reputation.

The relationship between visitors' perceptions of price, quality and value was tested by Zeithaml (1988) who reported that perceived service quality led to perceived

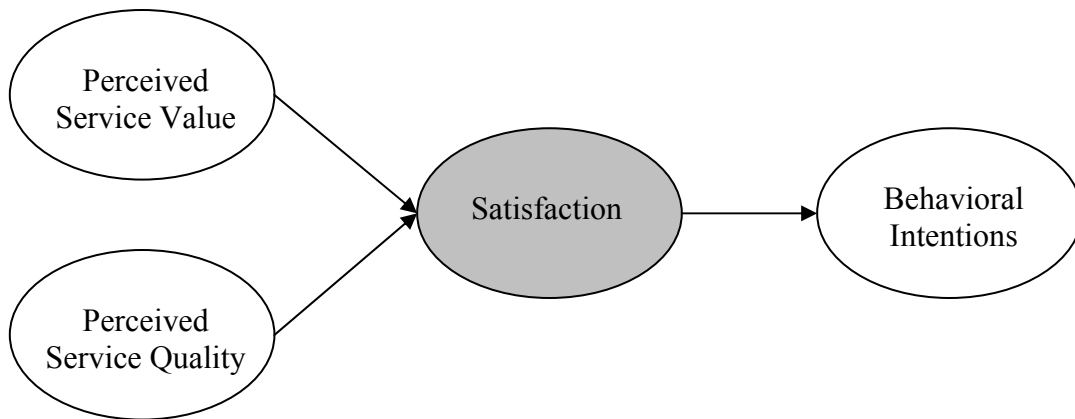
service value, which led to purchase intentions. Perceived service quality (intrinsic and extrinsic attributes) had a positive effect on perceived service value, while perceived monetary price had a negative effect on perceived service value.

## Satisfaction

### *Definitions of Visitor Satisfaction*

Satisfaction has become a central concept in modern marketing thought and practice (Yi 1990). Satisfaction can be defined in two different ways (Figure 5) which conceptualize it either as a need-based definition that views it as being closely related to motivation, so satisfaction is perceived to result from meeting corresponding needs or motives. Need satisfaction has been conceptualized as being the result of fulfillment of drives, motives, or needs (Stankey 1972; Francken 1982).

The alternative conceptualization is termed appraisal satisfaction and is not related to needs or motives. It refers to a form of assessment or evaluation of the extent to which a visitor's perception meets with his or her current expectations (Bultena and Klessig 1969; LaPage 1983). Bultena and Klessig (1969) proposed that "satisfaction is a function of the degree of congruency between aspirations and the perceive reality of experiences" (p.349); and by LaPage (1983): "a high-quality outdoor recreation experience is one which meets or exceeds the visitor's expectations" (p.39).



**Figure 5. Satisfaction**

Oliver (1981) defined satisfaction as a “summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer’s prior feelings about the consumption experience” (p.27). Oliver (1997) pointed out that satisfaction encompasses more than mere fulfillment. It describes a consumer’s experiences, which is the end state of a psychological process.

In the context of a specific transaction (Howard and Sheth 1969; Hunt 1977), satisfaction has been defined as “an evaluation rendered that the [consumption] experience was at least as good as it was supposed to be” (Hunt 1977, p.459); as “an evaluation that the chosen alternative is consistent with prior beliefs with respect to that alternative” (Engel and Blackwell 1982, p.501), and as “the consumer’s response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations [or some other norm of performance] and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its

consumption” (Tse and Wilton 1988, p.204). These definitions refer to an evaluative process relating to an outcome.

In the field of recreation, satisfaction has been perceived as a psychological outcome reflecting the view that recreation is defined as a state of mind rather than a behavior or activity (Driver and Tocher 1970). Brown (1988) conceptualized recreation as “a type of human experience based on intrinsically rewarding voluntary engagements during nonobligated time,” and concluded, “recreation experiences then are the realization of intrinsic outcomes from engaging in recreation activities” (p.412). In the context of recreation, satisfaction is determined by the extent to which desired outcomes or benefits are realized.

Crompton and Love (1995) conceptualized satisfaction in the context of park and recreation by defining it as visitors’ quality of experience, which is a psychological outcome resulting from their participation in recreation or tourism activities. This is consistent with Bultena and Klessig’s (1969) early definition of satisfaction as “is a function of the degree of congruency between aspirations and the perceived reality of experiences.”

By comparing expectations to perceptions visitors will form an opinion about the experience, positive or negative, which will guide to shape their psychological end state. To understand this process, it is important to know about the expectancy disconfirmation theory. The foremost strength of the perceptions-expectation paradigm is its useful diagnostic insights (Childress and Crompton 1997). However, they found that

perception-expectation format offers low predictive and discriminative validity and some instability among the factor domains.

### *Operationalization of Satisfaction*

The disconfirmation of expectations model has been the main operationalization of satisfaction (Spreng et al. 1996). This model suggests that satisfaction is determined by visitors comparing their perceptions of service performance to expectations (Oliver 1980). Expectations provide the baseline against which judgments of satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be made. A visitor's expectations are confirmed when a service performs as expected (perceived performance equals expectation); positively disconfirmed when the service performs better than expected (perceived performance exceeds the expectation); and negatively disconfirmed when the service performs worse than expected (Perceived performance below the expectations).

Many consumer satisfaction studies have been based on the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm (Anderson and Sullivan 1993; Churchill and Surprenant 1982; Oh and Parks 1997; Oliver 1980; Olshavsky and Miller 1972; Olson and Dover 1979; Tse and Wilton 1988). In accommodations research, Barsky (1992) and Barsky and Labagh (1992) used the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm in a model proposing that satisfaction was a function of disconfirmation measured by nine "expectations met" items which were weighted by attribute-specific importance. To test the model, data

were collected from 100 random subjects through guest comment cards. Results suggest that satisfaction was correlated with visitors' propensity to return to the same property.

Researchers have explored the effect of expectations on satisfaction (Barsky 1992; Spreng et al. 1996; Williams 1989). According to LaTour and Peat (1979), one problem with a disconfirmation model is that satisfaction increases as expectations decrease. It suggests that visitors with low expectation for a service who receive poor service performance will be satisfied.

In Prakash's (1984) study, data were collected in two stages. In the first stage, data were collected on three types of expectations such as predictive expectations (how a brand is likely to perform), normative expectations (i.e. how a brand should perform to be completely satisfied by the consumer and comparative expectations (i.e. comparing consumer expectations from similar other brands). In the second stage, which took place three weeks after the first survey, data were collected on postpurchase evaluation using seven point bipolar scales on the same brand attributes (good taste, pleasant aftertaste, good value for price, not filling, recommendation of friends, and good brand reputation). The study found that postpurchase evaluation ratings provided the best correlations with satisfaction and repurchase. He suggested that this was attributable to measuring the difference scores between expectation and performance having low reliability and low correlation with customer satisfaction. Peter et al. (1993) also suggested that researchers should be cautious when using difference scores in their studies.

Studies in the marketing literature have supported the role of disconfirmation in influencing satisfaction in different contexts (Bearden and Teel 1983; Churchill and

Surprenant 1982; Spreng et al. 1996; Swan and Oliver 1985; Swan and Trawick 1981; Trawick and Swan 1980; Tse and Wilton 1988). Bearden and Teel (1983) examined the role of disconfirmation on satisfaction, following Oliver's (1981) conceptualization of satisfaction as an emotional state. They asked 375 respondents to report their expectation before they used an automobile repair service outlet. The 375 respondents were randomly grouped into an initial sample (n=188) and a replication sample (n=187). Structural equation modeling was used for both samples to test the relationships between expectations, disconfirmation and satisfaction. The results showed that the paths from disconfirmation to satisfaction were significant.

The disconfirmation theory has been successfully utilized in the measurement of tourists' satisfaction also (Pizam and Milman 1993; Weber 1997). Pizam and Milman (1993) used the disconfirmation model to assess the satisfaction of first time visitors to Spain. Results of the study showed that disconfirmations are relatively good predictors of overall satisfaction with a destination. Weber (1997) found that disconfirmations have an impact on trip satisfaction in an analysis of the German travel market in Australia. The study also found that the overall assessment of trip satisfaction was affected by both previous travel experience and expenditures of travelers during their trip.

In today's competitive market, satisfaction alone may not be sufficient to generate repeat visitors. Tam's (2000) empirical research indicated that satisfaction was more strongly related to a perceived performance measure than to a disconfirmation measure of satisfaction. Satisfaction was measured using four items related to the

service and overall feeling towards the experience. This suggests it would be more beneficial for providers to influence visitors' perceptions of service than to change visitors' expectations.

It is important to understand that visitor satisfaction is not achieved exclusively through quality of service. Service quality does not directly measure satisfaction, but quality of service is likely to be the key medium for providing satisfaction. MacKay and Crompton (1990, p. 49) stated "service quality relates to opportunities, that is, to the gestalt of the tangible and intangible attributes of the service, while level of satisfaction relates to the psychological outcome which emerges from experiencing the service". It is important to understand that visitor satisfaction may increase through enhancing quality experiences by improving the quality of facilities and services.

Tian-Cole, Crompton and Willson (2002) reported that when visitors perceive a leisure service's attributes to be high quality, they are likely to experience higher levels of overall satisfaction with the service. Also, the stronger the psychological benefits that visitors obtained from their visits, the more positive attitude they were likely to have towards overall service quality.

### *Perceived Service Quality and Satisfaction*

Because of inconsistent definitions of both perceived service quality and satisfaction, confusion exists among both service providers and researchers (Cronin and Taylor 1992). It is important to providers because they want to know whether their



objective should be to have visitors who are “satisfied” with their performance or to deliver the maximum “perceived service quality.” The importance of this led several researchers to define the relationship between perceived service quality and satisfaction (Bitner 1990; Bolton and Drew 1991 a,b; Parasuraman et al. 1985, 1988).

Cronin and Taylor (1992) suggested that perceived service quality was an antecedent of visitor satisfaction. They reported that visitor satisfaction had a stronger effect on visitors’ behavioral intentions than perceived service quality. Otto and Ritchie (1995) identified that perceptions of quality of service attributes act as causal antecedents to level of satisfaction with an experience. Others have reported that service delivery personnel have a direct effect on emotional reaction to a service (Crosby and Cowles 1986), while Bitner (1992) demonstrated the impact of the physical environment of a service offering (a dimension of service quality) on satisfaction.

According to Spreng et al. (1996), most prior studies regarding satisfaction (Bearden and Tell 1983; Cadotte et al. 1987; Oliver 1980; Westbrook and Reilly 1983) have not included perceived service quality as an antecedent of satisfaction. However, a direct relationship between perceived service quality and satisfaction often has been found (Anderson et al. 1994; Anderson and Sullivan 1993; Tse and Wilton 1988).

Multi-item measures of both constructs should be incorporated in studies of these relationships (Cronin and Taylor 1994; Parasuraman et al. 1994). Cronin and Taylor (1992) found both have an effect on purchase intentions. Because satisfaction incorporates other dimensions in addition to service quality it is likely to be a “richer” construct for use in predicting behavioral intentions. For example, Tian-Cole, Crompton

and Willson (2002) suggested that higher perceptions of service quality and visitor satisfaction will increase revisitation and positive word-of-mouth. They also confirmed that both service quality and satisfaction had an independent effect on visitors' future behavioral intentions.

Taylor and Baker (1994) suggested "that satisfaction is superordinate to quality – that is, quality is only one of the many potential service dimensions factored into the consumer satisfaction construct" (p. 166). They also recognized that "a large number of non-quality issues can help form satisfaction judgments such as needs, equity, perception of fairness" (p.165). Cronin and Taylor (1992) contended that not all visitors desire the highest quality service, and that other factors such as price, convenience and availability of the service may be primary considerations. Baker and Crompton (2000) suggested that the tourists' visitation and/or company's revenue will increase if tourism providers invest their effort in evaluating and improving quality of performance in seeking to enhance the level of satisfaction for the visitors.

Hospitality researchers have used the disconfirmation framework in marketing to measure both satisfaction and service quality (Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Getty and Thompson 1994; Saleh and Ryan 1991). Service quality and satisfaction also have received attention in the tourism and recreation literatures (Childress and Crompton 1997; Crompton and MacKay 1988, 1989; Crompton et al. 1991; Crompton and Love 1995; LeBlanc 1992; Saleh and Ryan 1992). The relationship between satisfaction and service quality often is not clear. However, using the concept of service quality and

visitor satisfaction interchangeably, thus conceptualizing them as synonyms, is illogical (Tian-Cole et al. 2002).

Service quality and satisfaction can be examined from both transaction-specific and global perspectives (Teas 1993; Tian-Cole et al. 2002). Previously, service quality researchers (e.g., Carman 1990; Parasuraman et al. 1988) believed that satisfaction was a transaction-specific assessment, whereas service quality was a global assessment. Based on this distinction, service quality researchers posited that an accumulation of transaction-specific assessments leads to a global assessment (i.e., the direction of causality is from satisfaction to service quality) (Parasuraman et al. 1994). Acknowledging other empirical studies that suggest that the opposite was more likely to be true, these researchers subsequently offered a model that “posits a customer’s overall satisfaction with a transaction to be a function of his or her assessment of service quality, product quality and price. This conceptualization is consistent with the ‘quality leads to satisfaction’ school of thought” (Parasuraman et al. 1994, p.121). Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1994) suggested that higher satisfaction is an outcome of higher levels of perceived service quality but other researchers (Bitner 1990; Bolton and Drew 1991 a, b) contend that satisfaction is an antecedent of perceived service quality.

Cronin and Taylor (1992) have been criticized by other researchers (e.g. Oliver 1993) because they used a single item to measure satisfaction, which poses a question about the scale’s validity. To overcome this weakness, Bloemer and Ruyter (1995) measured patient satisfaction by two items: satisfaction with the outcome of the treatment, and satisfaction with the service delivery process using a health care service

setting. The models used a two-stage-least-squares approach to find the best model. The model depicting quality as an antecedent to satisfaction was found to be the best model. The authors stated, “From a theoretical perspective, the most important finding of our empirical study is that overall satisfaction should be treated as a superordinate construct to service quality. From this perspective, quality can be viewed as one of the factors that determines customer satisfaction (p.51)”

In the context of leisure services, a different conceptual approach has been used. Differentiation of the two constructs has been based on recognition of the differences between quality of opportunity and quality of experience (Crompton and Love 1995). In contrast, quality of experience satisfaction is derived from interaction between the attributes offered by providers and the effective state brought to the opportunity by the visitor as well (Crompton and Love 1995). Crompton and Love (1995) suggest that satisfaction is measured by how well leisure activities are perceived by the visitor to satisfy (fulfill) the basic needs and motives that influenced the desire to participate in leisure activity.

Visitors are likely to use more dimensions to form quality of experience than quality of performance. Satisfaction can result from any dimension, quality-related or not (Oliver 1993). Recreation experience can be influenced by the services provided by suppliers and the emotional states brought to the site by visitors as well.

Hence, assessing perceived service quality is not equivalent to assessing satisfaction. Satisfaction is a psychological outcome derived from the experience, whereas service quality is concerned with attributes of the service itself. Attributes of

service quality can be controlled and manipulated by recreation providers, but level of satisfaction is dependent not only on quality of service attributes but also on the status of a host of variables that may affect the user, such as the climate or the nature of the social group. Thus, a perceived high-quality service could result in a low level of satisfaction because of variables that are outside a supplier's control conversely, a high satisfaction outcome may occur in spite of low perception of service quality because of the social group interactions are sufficiently positive to offset the low-quality service (Crompton and MacKay 1989).

Baker and Crompton (2000) used a festival context to investigate the relationship between quality and satisfaction. Quality was measured with four dimensions: generic features of the festival, specific entertainment features, information sources, and comfort amenities. Satisfaction was measured using a four-item scale. The maximum-likelihood equation estimations showed that quality had a significant effect on visitor satisfaction. This study confirmed that satisfaction is enhanced by higher perceptions of performance quality. They also found that high performance quality encouraged visitors to be more loyal, increase revisitation, and positive word-of-mouth.

The relationship between service quality and satisfaction has been investigated in the context of tourism. For example, Tian-Cole, Crompton and Willson (2002) found that overall satisfaction and overall quality were not the same, and should be considered as different constructs. However, they found a significant correlation between the two constructs. The study reported that if visitors perceive high overall service quality, then they tended to have high levels of overall satisfaction. The study conceptualized service

quality and visitor satisfaction as overall attitudes. Thus, they contended that service quality and satisfaction exist at both the transaction and global levels. The transaction level refers to a visitor's specific encounter with a service, such as a visitor's particular visit to a specific festival. The global level refers to a visitor's overall experience with a service, and the cumulative experience that may be derived from multiple visits. Therefore, service quality and satisfaction can occur both during a visit and collectively after the visit. The study concluded that service quality and satisfaction have independent effects on visitors' future behavioral intentions. It contended that with high perceptions of overall service quality and satisfaction with the festival, visitors are more likely to revisit a festival again in the future or to encourage positive word-of-mouth.

One of the reasons that researchers and practitioners investigate the relationship between service quality and visitor satisfaction is to better predict visitor behavior. If visitor behavior can be predicted, then festival providers should have a better idea of which construct they should place more emphasis to attract more visitors. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) stated that "people who hold positive attitudes should engage in behaviors that approach, support, or enhance the attitude object, and people who hold negative attitudes should engage in behaviors that avoid, oppose, or hinder the object (p. 155)".

### *Perceived Service Value and Satisfaction*

Perceived service value was identified as “emerging as the strategic imperative” (Vantrappen 1992, p.53). Its role is of major and increasing concern to consumers and marketers (Dodds 1991). Spreng et al. (1993) suggested that apart from the obvious importance from a consumer’s perspective, perceived service value is of significance to researchers since it is likely to be the main determinant of being satisfied or dissatisfied and of the intensity of satisfaction/dissatisfaction experienced.

Bolton and Drew (1991) pointed out that perceived service value is a “richer measure of customers’ overall evaluation of a service than perceived service quality.” Perceived service value plays a key role linking the cognitive factors of perceived quality and perceived sacrifice with behavioral intention (Patterson et al. 1997). Perceived service quality and perceived service value are cognitive responses to a service experience, while satisfaction is an emotional response (Cronin et al. 2000), and cognitive responses precede emotional responses (Bagozzi 1992).

There has been a convergence of opinion that positive perceptions of perceived service quality lead to improved satisfaction and perceived service value and that, in turn, perceived service value has an effect on satisfaction directly (Cronin et al. 2000). Oh (1999) found that perceived service value led to satisfaction and repurchase intention. He also reported that perceived service value affected word-of-mouth both directly and indirectly through satisfaction and repurchase intention.

The basic premise of this study is that perceived service value is one of the key linkages between the perceived service quality and behavioral intention. Previous studies have indicated that satisfaction is a reliable predictor of behavioral intention (Baker and Crompton 2000; Patterson 1993; Tam 2000), but little is known of the extent to which satisfaction has an effect on perceived value. According to Bagozzi (1992), the initial service evaluation (i.e., appraisal) leads to an emotional reaction that, in turn, drives behavior. Perceptions of service quality and service value are cognitively-oriented variables that have an effect on satisfaction (Cronin, Brady and Hult 2000). Some studies found that perceived value will have an effect on satisfaction (Bojanic 1996; Cronin et al. 2000; Oh 1999; Tam 2000). Conversely, others perceive that a high level of perceived service value may result from satisfied visitors since if a visitor feels highly satisfied there may be a “halo effect” on his/her perception of value (Chang and Wildt 1994; Petrick and Backman 2002b).

For festival managers, it is important to establish what role, if any, perceived service value plays in determining visitors’ satisfaction. For example, if perceived service value can be directly related to visitors’ satisfaction, then a model that considers only service quality will represent an incomplete picture of the drivers of visitors’ satisfaction. There may be situations where visitors may be “satisfied” with “what” was delivered and “how” it was delivered, but may not have felt they got their “money’s worth.” If managers ignore the role of perceived value and focus only on perceived quality, then the effect on satisfaction will be weak. Establishing the role of perceived



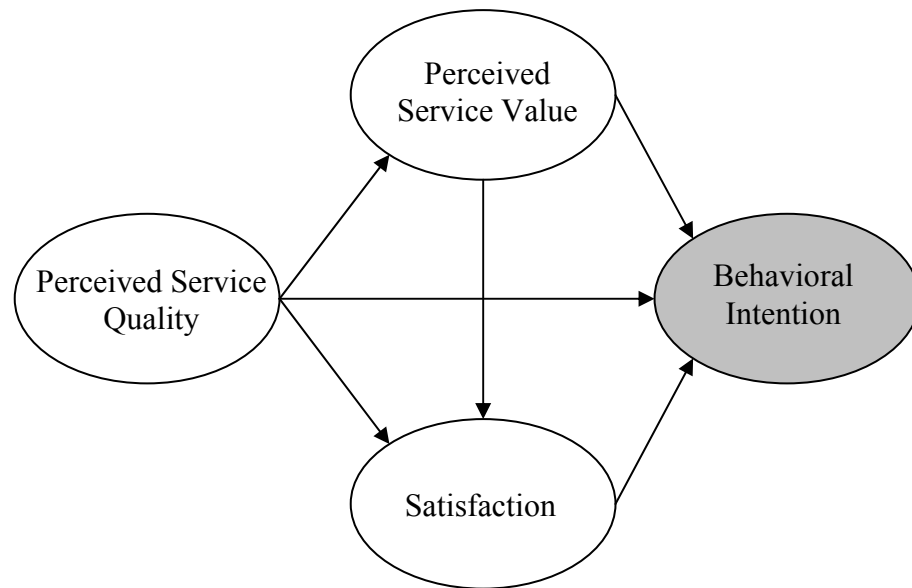
service value should improve the understanding of a predictability of visitors' satisfaction more effectively.

### Behavioral Intention

For most tourism providers, visitor retention is a key to the organization's profitability. Behavioral intention is often used to assess visitors' potential for revisiting since it is considered to be a relatively accurate predictor of future behavior (Fishbein 1980).

To survive and succeed in today's competitive environment, delivering quality service is considered essential (Parasuraman et al. 1985; Reichheld and Sasser 1990; Zeithaml et al. 1990). The relationship between service quality and profits is neither simple nor clear (Zahorik and Rust 1992), but researchers and managers have reported indicative relationships using behavioral intention as a surrogate for profits (Zeithaml et al. 1996).

Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) suggested that the evidence of impact should be detectable by relating service quality to retention of visitors. Visitors' behavioral intention can be viewed as a signal of retention or defection. When there are no revisitations from visitors, reliance will be on attracting new visitors which usually come at a high cost. New visitors will cost more because their attraction involves advertising and promoting.



**Figure 6. Behavioral Intention**

Several researchers (Boulding et al. 1993; Zeithaml et al. 1996) have suggested that higher perceptions of service quality have a positive effect on behavioral intention. Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) conducted a mail survey of business customers of a computer manufacturer asking for information on their perceptions of service quality and their behavioral intentions toward future purchases. They reported that service quality had a significant effect on behavioral intention.

### *Definition of Behavioral Intentions*

Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action has been used to predict behavioral intention by measuring attitudes and norms (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Fishbein 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). It has been used to predict many different behaviors in the recreation and park field, including camping (Young and Kent 1985) and controlled burn policy (Bright et al. 1993). "In general, prediction on the basis of the reasoned-action model has been quite successful" (Eagly 1992, p. 695).

Based on Fishbein and Ajzen's theory, the proximal causes of behavior is an intention to engage in a behavior rather than attitude which makes one to act in a certain way (Eagly 1992). Eagly (1992) also noted: "traditional thinking about attitudes' relation to behavior had implied not merely that attitudes should predict behavior but, more important, that they should cause behavior" (p. 694).

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) defined attitude as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (p. 1). They also noted: "people who hold positive attitudes should engage in behaviors that approach, support, or enhance the attitude object, and people who hold negative attitudes should engage in behaviors that avoid, oppose, or hinder the object" (p. 155). In spite of claiming that attitudes are insignificant causes and weak predictors of behavior understanding of attitudes has advanced very considerably since the 1960s (Eagly 1992).

The theory's relationship between attitude and its consequences can be adapted to explain the relationship between perceived service quality, satisfaction and behavioral

intention. Perceived service quality and visitor satisfaction are general evaluations of a tourist service, therefore they are attitudes. Since attitudes determine future intentions, perceived service quality and satisfaction are postulated to directly influence visitors' future behavioral intentions about a tourist service and their intent concerning future visitations to it. A high level of perceived service quality or overall satisfaction is postulated to generate visitors' intentions for positive word-of-mouth and repeat visitations, while a low level of perceived service quality or overall satisfaction is postulated to bring negative word-of-mouth and no future visitation.

#### *Operationalization of Behavioral Intentions*

To assess visitors' likely future behavior, behavioral intention is often measured since it is considered to be a relatively accurate predictor of future behavior (Fishbein 1980). Behavioral intentions have been operationalized by two scales measuring patronage intentions and intentions to recommend the places to others (Dabholkar and Thorpe 1994). The researchers reported a significant relationship between overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions, and found that overall satisfaction mediated the effect of situational satisfaction on behavioral intentions.

Many social psychologists have sought to understand the potential causal role of attitudes in relation to behavior. Among them, "Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of reasoned action is especially well known" (Eagly 1992, p.694). According to the theory of reasoned action, behavior is determined by people's intention to perform or not perform

the behavior. The behavioral intention is determined by attitude toward performing the behavior and subjective norm. Attitude toward the behavior refers to a person's positive or negative evaluation toward performing the behavior, while subjective norm refers to the person's perception of the social pressure for him/her to perform or not to perform the behavior (Trafimow and Borrie 1999). In recreation field, researchers have modified the theory to be a better predictor of behavior. Studies contend that behavioral intention is better predicted from a combination of attitudes, subjective norms, and previous behavior than from attitudes and subjective norms only (Bagozzi 1981; Bentler and Speckart 1981). Despite evidence from empirical studies, Beck and Ajzen (1991) argued that it serves "no useful purpose to include past behavior" in a causal model of behavior change, because it has no explanatory value (Ajzen 1987, p.41) since previous behavior does not predict intentions to perform behavior in the future.

Some previous studies failed to capture the full range of potential behavior intentions likely to be affected by service quality (Zeithaml et al. 1996). For example, Cronin and Taylor (1992) measured purchase intentions with a single-item scale, while Boulding et al. (1993) measured behavioral intentions using repurchase intentions and willingness to recommend. In their second study, involving service quality at an educational institution, Boulding et al. (1993) used a 6-item scale comprised of education-specific items, such as intent to contribute money to the class pledge and intent to recommend the school to employers as a place to recruit.

Zeithaml et al.'s (1996) study developed a 13-item battery to gauge a wider range of behavioral intentions than had been suggested in previous literature. The battery

included items such as: likelihood of paying a price premium and remaining loyal to a company even when its prices go up, intent to do more business with the firm in the future, and complaint intentions when service problems occur (p.37). The 13-items were grouped into five dimensions: loyalty to company (loyalty), propensity to switch (switch), willingness to pay more (pay more), external response to a problem (external response), and internal response to problem (internal response). Among these five dimensions, loyalty and willingness to pay more received the highest factor scores.

In Baker and Crompton's (2000) study, behavioral intention was operationalized by using seven items derived from Zeithaml et al. (1996). The items were a priori assigned to the two domains of loyalty (five items) and willingness-to-pay more (two items).

Loyalty is defined as a biased behavior expressed over time by a visitor with respect to one or more alternatives and is a function of psychological processes (Jacoby and Kyner 1973). It is a two-dimensional construct measured by both behavior and attitude (Baker and Crompton 2000).

Using a measurement that relies exclusively on observable behavior creates both measurement and conceptual problems. If loyalty is operationalized only in terms of overt behavior, then visitors who are classified as loyal in one study may be classified as not loyal in another study using the same data base because operationalizations of the term may be different. Empirical attempts to verify relationships between loyalty measured by repeat use and other specified dimensions of visitor behavior generally were not successful (Backman and Crompton, 1991a). Day (1969) termed a "spurious"

loyalty for those who are defined as spuriously loyal “lack any attachment to the brand” (p.30). They purchase a specific brand for a wide range of reasons such as no other brand being available, better price, and convenient location (Jacoby and Chestnut 1978). This lack of success led researchers to conclude that brand loyalty encompasses more than repeat use (Backman and Crompton 1991). Those who are defined as exhibiting true or “intentional” loyalty require a favorable attitude toward the specific brand purchased, in addition to regularity of purchasing.

In the early 1970s, researchers began to incorporate both behavioral and attitudinal dimensions into loyalty studies. Jacoby and Kyner (1973, p. 1) observed that, “a unidimensional measure is probably insufficient for measuring such a complex multidimensional phenomenon as brand loyalty.” To be truly loyal, it was recognized that a visitor must hold a favorable attitude toward a brand in addition to purchasing it repeatedly (Day 1969). Day suggested that using attitude and behavior together would strengthen the predictive power of a model. Olson and Jacoby (1971) agreed that the concept of brand loyalty was multidimensional. Several studies in the parks and recreation field subsequently have examined loyalty using this composite approach (Backman and Crompton 1991a, b; Howard, Edginton and Selin 1988; Jarvis and Mayo 1986; Selin, Howard, Udd and Cable 1988).

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the study context, sampling and data collection procedures; the measurement of variables involved in the study; and the methods used for data analysis. The major objective of the study was to test the efficacy of the conceptual model described in Chapter II, by investigating the extent to which empirical evidence supports it. Primary data were gathered and assembled to do this.

The proposed model was intended to explain how perceived service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction influence visitors' future behavioral intentions. Thus, it attempted to explain the inter-relationships among psychological, attitudinal and behavioral constructs. Kerlinger (1986) points out that "survey research studies large and small populations (or universes) by selecting and studying samples chosen from the populations to discover the relative incidence, distribution, and interrelations of sociological and psychological variables" (p. 377). The units of analysis in the study were visitors to the Conroe Cajun Catfish festival in Texas.

#### Study Context

The study was conducted at the Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival. The event was started in 1990 and is held annually at the downtown square in Conroe, Texas, on the



second weekend each October. The Festival typically draws 30,000 to 40,000 people to hear its live music line-up, browse through the many craft booths and exhibits, and eat a variety of Cajun style food ([www.conroecajuncatfishfestival.com](http://www.conroecajuncatfishfestival.com)). The festival features events including continuous live music on five stages, midway carnival, food and craft booths, a golf tournament, catfish races, mechanical bull riding, and dancing. During the three-day festival, the area is fenced to control activities and permit the charging of admission. Ticket prices were \$8 for the whole day and \$4 for Saturday afternoon. Children under 12 and seniors 65 and over were admitted free.

### Sampling and Data Collection

The target population was visitors to the festival. The plan was to systematically survey every 5<sup>th</sup> visitor who entered the gate. Visitors were approached and asked to participate in the survey. After they agreed to participate, a questionnaire with a pre-paid envelope and a cover letter explaining the purpose and the importance of the study were given to them (Appendix A). Participants were requested to complete and return the questionnaire in the enclosed pre-paid envelope. They also were asked to write down their names and addresses so that the researcher was able to make subsequent contact with them in the future (Appendix B).

Data collection followed a modification of Dillman's (2000) method. He suggests up to five contacts with questionnaire respondents. Their cooperation to participate in the study was solicited at the entrance gate, and if they were agreeable they

were given the questionnaire to mail back. In the first week after distributing the questionnaires, a reminder postcard was sent to all respondents. This expressed appreciation for their willingness to participate and reminded them to complete the survey and mail it back if the completed questionnaire had not yet been mailed. Two weeks after they were handed the initial questionnaire, a replacement questionnaire with a cover letter was sent to those who had not replied (Appendix B). The cover letter reiterated the importance of each returned questionnaire so it encouraged respondents to mail the survey back.

A total of 1,158 visitors were approached and 427 visitors agreed to participate in the study. After postcard reminders were sent those visitors, 101 surveys were returned. After sending a replacement questionnaire with a cover letter, an additional 133 surveys were returned, and a total response rate of 54.8% (of those that agreed to participate in the study) was achieved. Of the 241 visitors that responded, seven survey questionnaires were incomplete which resulted in 234 usable surveys (Table 1).

There has been wide acceptance that the higher response rate would generate the lower likelihood of response error. Thus, researchers operationalized Dillman's (2000) two follow-up questionnaires to nonrespondents in the study (Crompton and Tian-Cole 2001). The Crompton and Tian-Cole (2001) study examined three types of populations (i.e., tourist interest populations, professional interest populations and general populations) that were classified into 13 data sets. The study found that 82 % of the variables that were tested utilizing the addition of Waves 2 and 3 led to no differences in

the results. This may suggest that adding the second and third waves does not generate significant changes in the accuracy of the results.

In previous studies, it has been suggested that low response rates may be acceptable within the relatively homogenous residents (Becker and Iliff 1983; Becker, Dottavio and Mengak 1987). Goudy (1978) conducted a study in a small-town in Iowa. The study found that only 2 of 36 correlations differed significantly (.05 level) when waves were compared. The study also found that the small-town represented a relatively homogenous group. The city of Conroe is a small-town in Texas. Over 90% of visitors at the Cajun Catfish Festival were from within a 10 mile-radius suggesting it may be a relatively homogeneous group. Based on the previous findings, even though this study did not achieve more than 70% (Hammitt and McDonald 1982) of the response rate, 55% of the response rate was justifiable for the study.

**Table 1. Survey Response Rate**

# of surveys distributed	<u>Number of Surveys Returned</u>		<u>Total Responses</u>	
	2 weeks after initial contact	3 weeks after initial contact	N	%
427	101	133	234	54.8

This study followed the guidelines on ethics suggested by Babbie (1998). The participation of respondents was voluntary. The survey was designed to do no harm to

respondents who volunteered to cooperate with the study. There are two techniques, anonymity and confidentiality, to protect respondents' identity (Babbie 1998). When a respondent is considered anonymous, researchers cannot identify a given response with a given respondent. In a confidential survey, researchers are able to identify a given response with a given respondent but promises that he/she will not identify who the respondent is. The current study utilized a confidential survey to do a follow-up plans for the respondents who failed to reply. Babbie (1998) contended that researchers "must conduct a research which is scientifically sound, administratively feasible, and ethically defensible" (p. 350). As a researcher, it was important to consider Babbie's (1998) guidelines on ethics in the process of sampling and data collection.

### Measurement and Operationalization of Constructs

Five constructs were included in the hypotheses that were tested. They were: perceived sacrifice, perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction, and visitors' behavioral intentions. In this section, operationalization of these constructs is described. In addition to these constructs, descriptors characterizing visitors' profiles were collected.

### *Perceived Sacrifice*

Perceived sacrifice was operationalized by a multiple-item scale. The rationale for developing this scale was based on Zeithaml's (1988) definition of perceived sacrifice as "what is given up or sacrificed to acquire a service." Specifically, items measured visitors' perceived monetary (in terms of admission price) and perceived non-monetary price (in terms of time and effort) (Cronin et al. 2000; Dodds et al. 1991; Zeithaml 1988). Sacrifice was measured using a three-item, seven-point symmetrical Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (very low) to 7 (very high). The three items were: "The time required to attend the Cajun Catfish Festival was"; "The effort I made to attend Cajun Catfish Festival was"; and "The price charged for admission to the Cajun Catfish Festival was." Analysis of the reliability of these three items revealed that the items were *not* reliable since the Cronbach's alpha was .02 (Table 2). Hence, this construct was not entered in the structural equation model.

**Table 2. Reliability Test of Perceived Sacrifice Items**

Dimension and Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Perceived Sacrifice	.02
Time required to attend the festival	
Effort made to attend the festival	
Price charged for admission to the festival	

### *Perceived Service Quality*

Perceived service quality was operationalized as attributes of the service that were controlled by organizers of the Festival. The principles undergirding development of the scale were derived from SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al. 1988). In the recreation and tourism field, several researchers have developed service quality dimensions and reported that they are not generic across all services (Childress and Crompton 1997; Crompton and Love 1995). In the tourism and recreation context, there are many situations in which the five dimensions of SERVQUAL are not applicable because of minimum interaction with service personnel. Rather, much of the experience results from visitors' direct interaction with tangibles (Crompton and Love 1995; Fick and Ritchie 1991).

The perceived service quality attribute items generated for this festival were assigned to four domains. These domains were based upon the service quality dimensions used in Childress and Crompton's (1997) festival study. They were: generic features (five items), specific entertainment features (four items), information sources (two items), and comfort amenities (five items). These dimensions were also used by Baker and Crompton (2000). Re-wording of some of the items was needed to make the scale specific to the Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival.

The attributes were measured using a seven-point symmetrical Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very poor) to 7 (very good). The attributes were presented using the rubric: "We would like to know your views about the quality of the following features

of Cajun Catfish Festival 2003. Please circle the number which best reflects your opinion.”

Generally, reliability refers as the consistency of observations or measures (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). The reliability is one index of the effectiveness of an instrument. Because of an important issue of the measurement error, reliability should be investigated when measures are examined (Nunnally 1967). Therefore, it is necessary to perform a reliability test before undertaking subsequent analyses.

An analysis of the reliability of the 16 items measuring four dimensions of perceived service quality suggested that some items should be deleted from the *a priori* assigned dimensions to improve the level of reliability. If the measure is considered to be reliable, the Cronbach alpha should be at least .60 (Nunnally 1967). The reliability greater than .60 within the measure represents an internal consistency across the items. The deletions consisted of two items (cleanliness of the festival site and food and beverages) from the generic features dimension; one item (promptness of the music performance) from the specific entertainment features dimension; and three items (number of places to sit down, site's accessibility for those with special needs, and friendliness of people) from comfort amenities dimension (Table 2). Deleting these items resulted in a higher level of internal consistency among the items in each dimension (The range of Cronbach alphas prior to dropping were from .50 to .61). The Cronbach alphas of remaining items in the domains ranged from .60 to .63. These are low but acceptable given the relatively small number of items in each dimension (Nunnally & Bernstein 1994).

**Table 3. Reliability Test of Perceived Service Quality Items**

Dimensions and Items	Cronbach's Alpha
GENERIC FEATURES	.63
visual appearance of Cajun Catfish Festival	
live entertainment	
feeling of safety	
SPECIFIC ENTERTAINMENT FEATURES	.62
craft exhibits/vendors	
children's area	
Kachunga and alligator show	
INFORMATION SOURCES	.61
printed information	
onsite signs	
COMFORT AMENITIES	.60
cleanliness of the portable restrooms	
availability of restrooms	

### *Perceived Service Value*

In early studies of perceived service value a self-reported, unidimensional measure was used to ask visitors to rate the value they received from their visit (Gale 1994). However, it has been pointed out that using a single overall evaluative statement as a measure of perceived service value leads to problems of both reliability and validity (Jayanti and Ghosh 1996; Tam 2000; Woodruff and Gardial 1996).



In a tourism context, Petrick (2002a) developed a 25-item instrument to measure perceived service value. Five dimensions: quality, emotional response, monetary price, behavioral price, and reputation were measured. Quality was defined as a visitor's judgment about a product or service's overall excellence or superiority (Zeithaml 1988). Emotional response was an affective judgment regarding the pleasure that a product or service gives the visitor (Petrick 2002a; Sweeney et al. 1998). Monetary price was defined as the price of a service that is encoded by the visitor (Zeithaml 1988). Behavioral price was non-monetary price which was measured in time and effort associated with a service (Cronin et al. 2000). Reputation was related to the prestige or status of a service perceived by the visitor (Dodds et al. 1991). Of these 25 items, four items were assigned to the "quality" dimension, six items were assigned to "perceived monetary price," and the remaining dimensions, emotional response, behavioral price, and reputation had five items each. This scale was found to be reliable and have content validity.

From the five items in each domain, the three items that had the highest standardized path coefficient score from Petrick's (2002a) study were selected for inclusion in this study. If two items appeared to share the same meaning, the item with the higher coefficient score was used. These fourteen items were presented using a strongly disagree to strongly agree, 7 point scale format. The Cronbach alphas revealed there was an acceptable level of consistency among the items within each dimension (Table 4).

**Table 4. Reliability Test of Perceived Service Value Items**

Domains and Items	Cronbach's Alpha
PERCEIVED MONETARY PRICE	.81
admission price is reasonable	
admission price is worth the money	
admission price is fairly priced	
EMOTIONAL RESPONSE	.81
makes me happy	
gives me a sense of joy	
feel delighted	
BEHAVIORAL PRICE	.73
requires little effort	
requires little energy	
QUALITY	.61
is very dependable	
is very consistent	
is very reliable	
REPUTATION	.68
has a good reputation	
is well respected	
is well thought of	

### *Satisfaction*

Satisfaction is defined as “an evaluation rendered that the [consumption] experience was at least as good as it was expected to be” (Hunt 1977, p.450); and as “the consumer’s response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior

expectations [or some other norm of performance] and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption” (Tse and Wilton 1988, p. 204).

The services marketing literature indicates that satisfaction is largely an emotive construct (Oliver 1981, 1997; Westbrook and Oliver 1991). This study adopted the definition of satisfaction as “primarily affective” (Oliver 1997) and operationalized the construct by using four items that were adapted from Oliver (1997) and Westbrook and Oliver (1991), and a further item that was developed based on the definition of satisfaction, which is meeting expectations. Among the four items, the first three items were the “evaluate” set of satisfaction measures. These items were measured using a seven-point symmetrical Likert-type scale which ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The items to which visitors were asked to respond were: “My choice to visit this festival was a wise one,” “I think that I did the right thing when I visited this festival,” and “I am satisfied with my decision to visit this festival.” An “emotion-based” item was operationalized, from Oh’s (2000) study, “high expectations were met.” Visitors also were asked to measure how well the festival delivered satisfaction using a seven-point symmetrical Likert-type scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The five satisfaction items revealed an acceptable level of internal consistency, with a Cronbach alpha of .71 (Table 5). These items were selected from the marketing and hospitality literatures (Oh 2000; Oliver 1997; Westbrook & Oliver 1991).

**Table 5. Reliability Test of Satisfaction Items**

Domain and Items	Cronbach's Alpha
SATISFACTION	.71
Choice to visit this festival was a wise one	
The festival delivered high satisfaction	
High expectations were met	
Visiting this festival was right thing	
Satisfied with my decision to visit this festival	

### *Behavioral Intention*

The study used an adaptation of Zeithaml et al.'s (1996) thirteen-item scale to gauge behavioral intentions. The original thirteen items were grouped into five dimensions: loyalty to company (loyalty), propensity to switch (switch), willingness to pay more (pay more), external response to problem (external response), and internal response to problem (internal response). Internal response was a single-item measure which was subsequently deleted leaving a twelve-item instrument (Zeithaml et al. 1996). Of these five dimensions, the loyalty and pay more dimensions were selected to measure visitors' behavioral intention in this study, since they showed consistent patterns of loadings across the four companies utilized in Zeithaml et al.'s (1996) study. A modified version of this scale has been used in previous studies in the tourism field (Baker and Crompton 2000; Childress and Crompton 1997; Tian-Cole et al. 2002).

Of the seven items, five measured “loyalty” and two items measured “pay more.” The alpha scores for the five items on “loyalty” and the two items on “pay more” revealed different levels of scores. The reliability score of the five loyalty items was .81 and by deleting one item (the first choice among festivals) it increased the reliability score to .83. In contrast, the reliability score for the “pay more” dimension was .43. This suggested poor internal consistency between the items so it was decided not to enter this dimension in the structural equation model (Table 6).

**Table 6. Reliability Test of Behavioral Intentions Items**

Domains and Items	Cronbach's Alpha for Scales
LOYALTY	.83
say positive things to other people	
attend the festival either next year or the year after	
recommend to others	
encourage friends and relatives to go the festival	
PAY MORE	.43
Continue to attend the festival if the admission price is increased	
Pay a higher admission fee than at other festivals	

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the study's research findings. A descriptive profile of the respondents is presented, together with the structural model which was developed and results of the hypotheses testing.

#### Profile of Visitors

The profile of respondents is shown in Table 7. A broad range of age groups was represented, but over two-thirds (72.2%) of the sample was aged 30-69. Of the 234 respondents, almost two-thirds (64.1%) were female. Visitors tended to be relatively highly educated with 64.5% having at least some college education, and almost all respondents (98.4%) resided in Texas. Sixty-one percent (n=261) of respondents said they were visiting the Cajun Catfish Festival for the first time, while 79.1% (n=338) had visited other festivals previously. Of those who had visited other festivals, 46.6% (n=199) visited between one to four times, and 25.8% (n=110) visited between five to ten times.

**Table 7. Demographic Profile and Visitation Characteristics of Respondents**

Characteristics	N	Percent
AGE		
Under 20 years	7	3.0
20-29 years	13	5.6
30-39 years	42	17.9
40-49 years	53	22.7
50-59 years	74	31.6
60-69 years	26	11.1
70-79 years	18	7.7
80-89 years	1	0.4
GENDER		
Male	84	35.9
Female	150	64.1
EDUCATION		
Junior high	4	1.7
High school	79	33.8
College	151	64.5
RESIDENCE		
Texas	420	98.4
Outside Texas	7	1.6
FIRST VISIT TO THE CAJUN CATFISH FESTIVAL		
No previous visits	261	61.1
1-2 times	63	14.8
3-4 times	53	12.4
5-6 times	27	6.3
7-10 times	15	3.5
More than 10 times	8	1.9
NUMBER OF VISIT TO OTHER FESTIVALS		
No previous visits	89	20.8
1-2 times	100	23.4
3-4 times	99	23.2
5-6 times	62	14.5
7-10 times	48	11.2
More than 10 times	29	6.8

### Data Analysis Procedures

The data were first examined by using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means and standard deviations. The purpose was to develop profiles of the total sample and to identify distributions of the variables. The hypotheses proposed in the study were tested using a structural equation modeling (SEM) procedure. SEM is a procedure that may be used for the analysis of causal models with multiple indicators of latent variables or measurement errors (Bollen 1989). Byrne (2001) stated that SEM is a “statistical method that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the multivariate analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon” (p.3). The constructs in this study: perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions are all unobservable concepts that are dependent on manifest indicators. The structural model specifies causal relationship between the latent variables themselves. It also provides an explicit estimation of measurement error. The path analysis in these latent variables provided evidence of whether each hypothesis was supported or not and suggested the relative strength of the relationships. AMOS (Arbuckle 1997) was the SEM software that was used in this study to examine hypotheses and investigate the relationships among variables.

Two models with different operationalizations of perceived service quality were tested in the study. In model 1, perceived service quality was embraced in a Petrick’s (2002a) five dimensions of perceived service value scale: service quality, emotional response, monetary price, behavioral price and reputation. In model 2, the Quality



dimension of perceived service value was omitted so this construct was measured by the remaining four dimensions. In addition in model two, the Quality dimension of perceived service value was replaced with all four dimensions used to operationalize perceived service quality (i.e. Generic Feature, Specific Features, Information Sources and Comfort Amenities) (Baker and Crompton 2000).

Descriptive statistics relating to the four constructs entered into the models are discussed in the following paragraphs. It was noted in chapter III that the perceived sacrifice scale items had a poor internal consistency and so this construct was dropped from further consideration in the analyses.

#### *Perceived Service Quality*

Four dimensions of perceived service quality were measured: Generic Features, Specific Entertainment Features, Information Sources and Comfort Amenities. All items were measured on seven-point Likert-type scale items anchored by 1 (very low) to 7 (very high). Table 8 reports the mean scores of visitors' perceptions on each perceived service quality attribute. The table shows that respondents assigned the highest ratings (mean of 6.17 on a 7-point scale) to the Generic Features domain, while the attribute on which the festival scored lowest was "availability of restrooms."

**Table 8. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for the Visitors' Perceived Service Quality Domains**

Attributes	Mean	Standard Deviation
Generic Features	<b><u>6.17</u></b>	<b><u>0.63</u></b>
visual appearance of Cajun Catfish Festival	6.12	0.81
live entertainment	6.03	0.98
feeling of safety	6.38	0.70
Specific Entertainment Features	<b><u>5.54</u></b>	<b><u>0.74</u></b>
craft exhibits/vendors	5.50	0.97
children's area	5.64	0.97
Kachunga and alligator show	5.48	1.00
Information Sources	<b><u>5.37</u></b>	<b><u>0.91</u></b>
printed information	5.31	1.08
onsite signs	5.41	1.07
Comfort Amenities	<b><u>4.86</u></b>	<b><u>0.98</u></b>
cleanliness of the portable restrooms	4.98	1.16
availability of restrooms	4.74	1.16

\* 7 pt. scale where 1 = very low & 7 = very high

#### *Perceived Service Value*

The 14 item scale consisted of five dimensions: perceived monetary price, emotional response, behavioral price, quality and reputation. All items were measured on seven-point Likert-type scales anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree). Table 9 shows that respondents assigned the highest ratings (mean of 5.95) to the quality dimension, while the lowest rating (mean of 5.18) was given to the behavioral price dimension.

**Table 9. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for the Visitors' Perceived Service Value Domains (Petrick 2002a)**

Domains and Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Perceived Monetary Price	<b><u>5.21</u></b>	<b><u>0.82</u></b>
admission price is reasonable	5.25	0.99
admission price is worth the money	5.24	0.95
admission price is fairly priced	5.15	0.94
Emotional Response	<b><u>5.58</u></b>	<b><u>0.82</u></b>
makes me happy	5.62	0.96
gives me a sense of joy	5.63	0.98
feel delighted	5.52	0.94
Behavioral Price	<b><u>5.18</u></b>	<b><u>0.88</u></b>
requires little effort	5.17	0.95
requires little energy	5.20	1.04
Quality	<b><u>5.95</u></b>	<b><u>0.65</u></b>
is very dependable	5.96	0.83
is very consistent	6.00	0.85
is very reliable	5.88	0.93
Reputation	<b><u>5.40</u></b>	<b><u>0.72</u></b>
has a good reputation	5.41	0.90
is well respected	5.34	0.87
is well thought of	5.43	0.97

\* 7 pt. scale where 1 = strongly disagree & 7 = strongly agree

### *Satisfaction*

Respondents were asked whether they had satisfying experiences based on five items: “high expectations were met,” “my choice to visit this festival was a wise one,” “I

think I did the right thing when I visited this festival,” “I’m satisfied with my decision to visit this festival,” and “The festival delivered high satisfaction.” A seven-point Likert-type scale was utilized to collect visitors’ responses, anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree.” Table 10 shows that visitors had relatively satisfying experiences at the festival (means from 6.12 to 6.29).

**Table 10. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for the Visitors’ Satisfaction**

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Meeting the expectation	6.12	0.69
Choice was a wise one	6.15	0.73
Did the right thing	6.16	0.76
Satisfied with my decision	6.29	0.71
Delivered high satisfaction	6.24	0.72

\* 7 pt. scale where 1 = strongly disagree & 7 = strongly agree

### *Behavioral Intentions*

In chapter III it was reported that the “pay more” dimension reliability score was relatively low (.43). Thus, only the “loyalty” dimension was used to operationalize visitors’ behavioral intentions. A 7-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (Not at all likely) to 7 (Extremely likely). The mean scores for the four loyalty items were lower than the mean scores of the perceived service quality and satisfaction constructs (Table 11).

**Table 11. Mean and Standard Deviation Scores for the Visitors’ Behavioral Intentions Domains**

Domain and Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Loyalty		
say positive things about the festival to other people	5.88	1.06
attend the festival either next year or the year after	5.61	1.31
recommend the festival to others	5.65	1.32
encourage friends and relatives to go to the festival	5.50	1.13

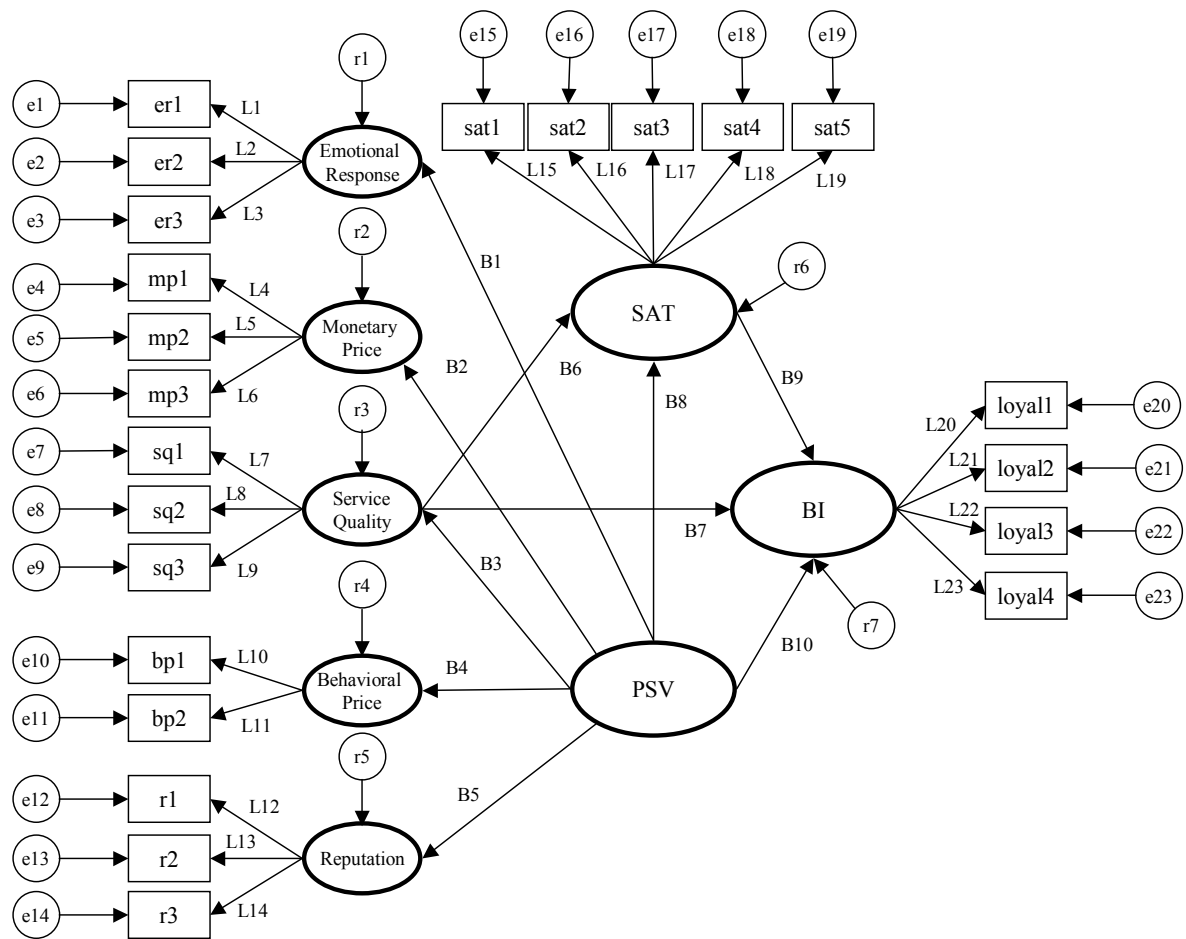
\* 7 pt. scale where 1 = not at all likely & 7 = extremely likely

### The Structural Model

These structural models were developed. Model 1 involved four latent variables (service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions). The scale items measuring these constructs are presented in Table 12. Five items measured satisfaction: visit this festival was a wise one, delivered high satisfaction, high expectations were met, did the right thing, and satisfied with my decision to visit this festival. This operationalization of satisfaction was used in both models. Finally, loyalty was used to measure visitors' behavioral intentions. After the adjustments were made to the scales measuring the latent variables, four dimensions were used to measure perceived service quality: Generic Features, Specific Features, Information Sources and Comfort Amenities. In model 2, the Quality dimension of perceived service value was omitted so this construct was measured by the remaining four dimensions. In addition in model two, the Quality dimension of perceived service value was replaced with all four dimensions used to operationalize perceived service quality (i.e. Generic Feature, Specific Features, Information Sources and Comfort Amenities).

**Table 12. Summary of Factors and Items**

Factors		Items
Perceived Service Quality	Generic Features	visual appearance live entertainment safety
	Specific Features	craft exhibits/vendors children' area Kachunga and alligator show
	Information Sources	printed information onsite signs
	Comfort Amenities	cleanliness (restrooms) availability of restrooms
Perceived Service Value	Emotional Response	makes me happy gives me a sense of joy feel delighted
	Monetary Price	reasonable worth the money fairly priced
	Behavioral Price	required little effort required little energy
	Quality	is very dependable is very consistent is very reliable
	Reputation	has a good reputation is well respected is well thought of
Satisfaction		was wise delivered high satisfaction high expectations were met did the right thing satisfied with my decision
Behavioral Intention	Loyalty	say positive things to other people attend the festival either next year or the year after recommend to others encourage friends and relatives to go the festival



**Figure 7. The Initial Structural Model 1**



### *Initial Structural Model 1*

The initial structural model 1 is shown in Figure 7. In Figure 7, the letter “L” represents the coefficient of the items to each factor, letter “B” represents the coefficients of paths among latent factors, letter “e” represents measurement errors for each of the manifest variables, and letter “r” represents the errors of endogenous latent factors. It has been recommended that the model chi-square statistic be used as a goodness of fit index, with smaller chi-square values being indicative of a better model fit (Joreskog and Sorbom 1993). However, the chi-square statistic is very sensitive to both sample size and the assumption of multivariate normality, tending to increase if it departs from the multivariate normality (Klem 2000). It is unrealistic in most SEM empirical research to find well-fitting hypothesized models where the  $\chi^2$  value approximates the degrees of freedom (Byrne 2001). Therefore, chi-square usually is not considered as the absolute standard by which the goodness-of-fit of a model is judged (Hayduk 1987; Joreskog and Sorbom 1993).

There are other measures of fit indices that are more standardized and less sensitive to sample size than the chi-square statistic. These tests include goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), and Bentler’s comparative fit index (CFI). Values over .9 on all of these indices indicate an acceptable fit (Bollen 1989). The root mean square residual (RMR) represents: “the average residual value derived from the fitting of the variance-covariance matrix for the hypothesized model to the

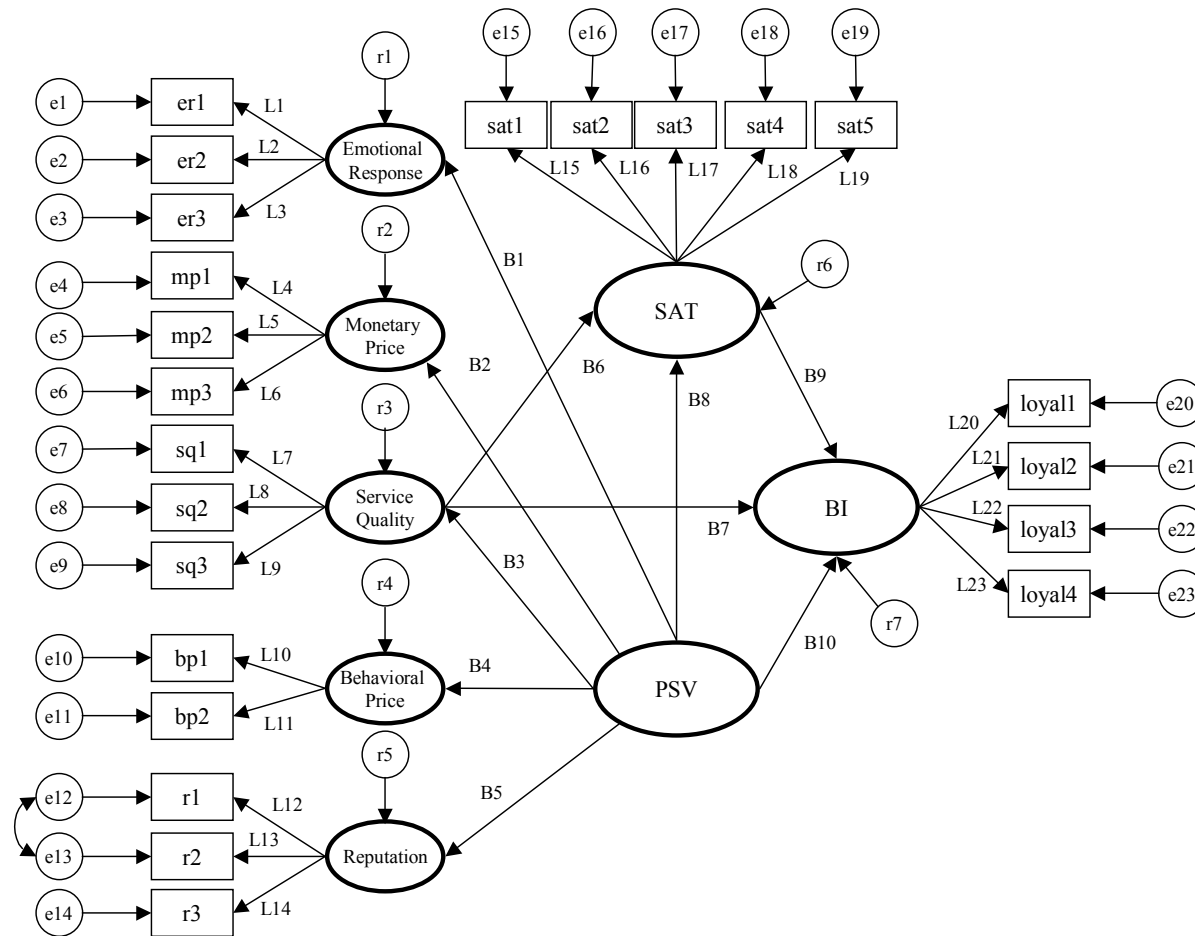
variance-covariance matrix of the sample data” (Byrne 2001, p.82). In a well-fitting model, this value should be less than .05 (Byrne 2001).

Goodness of fit indices for the initial theory based Structural Model 1 are presented in Table 13. This table shows that the initial structural model displayed values above .90 on the goodness of fit index (GFI) and Bentler’s comparative fit index (CFI). The values for these indices were .90 and .93. The adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) value was .87.

To identify problems with the model, the patterns of modification indices were examined. Modification indexes (MI) can be conceptualized as a  $\chi^2$  statistics with one degree of freedom (Joreskog and Sorbom 1993). This means that for each specified fixed parameter the MI which AMOS provides represents the expected drop in overall  $\chi^2$  value. Normally, MIs over 10 are considered large and problematic (Joreskog and Sorbom 1993). The output indicated that the largest MI was 14.97, which was the error covariance between reputation items (e13 ↔ e12). Error correlations between item pairs are often an indication of perceived redundancy in item content (Byrne 2001). Weinfurt (1995) indicated that each item may have an indirect effect on the latent measures through the covariate. Items 12 (has a good reputation) and 13 (well respected) both measure the reputation factor, but their level of covariance suggests they elicit similar responses from visitors.

**Table 13. Fit Indices of the Initial Structural Model 1**

Fit Index	Value
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI),	.90
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI),	.87
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.93
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.05
Chi-square Test	$\chi^2 = 308.13$ df = 220 $p = .0001$



**Figure 8. The First Revised Structural Model 1**

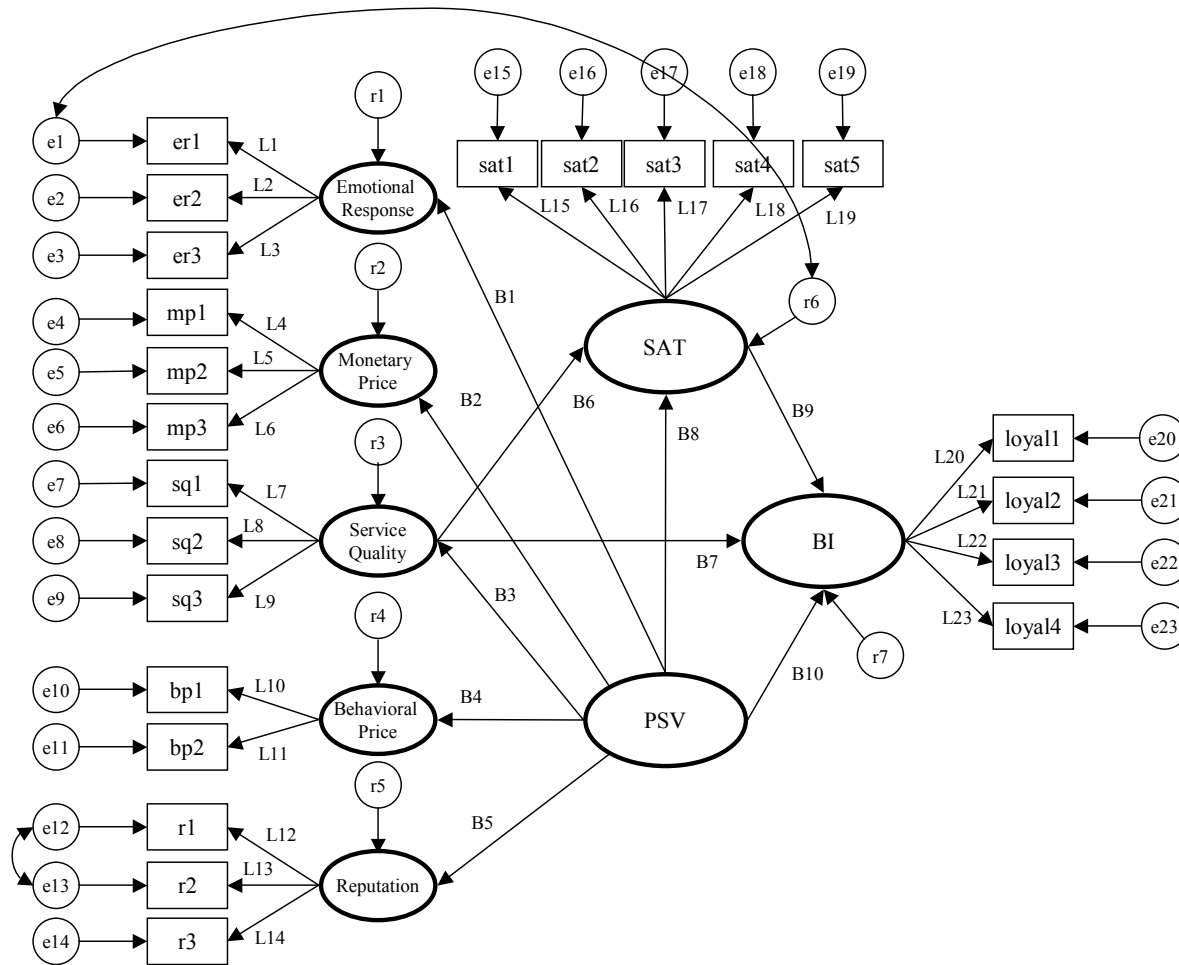
### *The First Revised Structural Model 1*

Figure 8 shows the first revised model 1 and the parameters that were estimated. The only difference between this model and the initial model is the addition of the path between e12 and e13. Fit indices for revised model 1 are presented in Table 14. The fit indices of the new model have higher values than those of the initial model. That is, GFI = .91, AGFI = .88, CFI = .94 and RMR = .05. This shows that the revised structural model is a better fit than the initial structural model. The chi-square difference test between the initial model and revised model showed a significant difference value of  $308.126 - 286.836 = 21.290$  ( $df = 1$ ,  $p = .001$ ), confirming that the revised model was a significantly better fit than the initial structural model.

Modification indexes were also investigated to identify any misfits in the model. The output indicated that the largest MI was 13.35, which relates to an error covariance between e1 and res 6. E1 is the error variance of a “happy” item, which measures the emotional response and res 6 is the error variance of satisfaction. Cadotte, Woodruff & Jenkins (1987) contend that the satisfaction is an emotional response and satisfaction is considered to be the emotional reaction from the consumer (Oliver 1981). Based on these rationales, it is appropriate to reestimate the model with the error covariance between these two items.

**Table 14. Fit Indices of the First Revised Structural Model 1**

Fit Index	Value
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI),	.91
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI),	.88
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.94
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.05
Chi-square Test	$\chi^2 = 286.84$ df = 219 $\rho = .0001$



**Figure 9. The Second Revised Structural Model 1**

### *The Second Revised Structural Model 1*

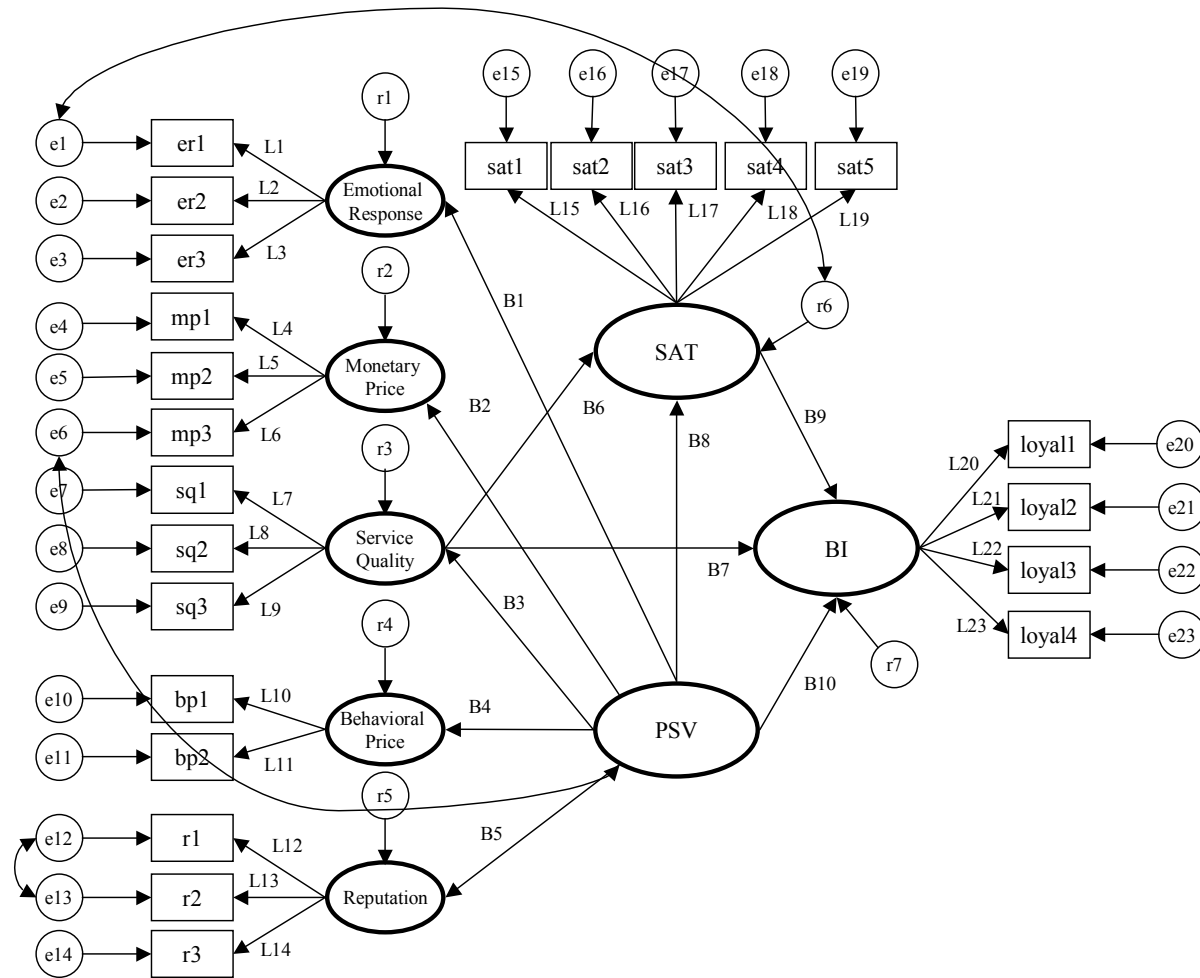
Figure 9 shows the second revised structural model 1 and the parameters that were estimated. The difference between this model and the initial model is the addition of the path between  $\epsilon_1$  and  $\text{res } 6$ . The goodness of fit indices for the revised structural model are presented in Table 15. The results showed that all four of the indices ( $\text{GFI}=.91$ ,  $\text{AGFI}=.89$ ,  $\text{CFI}=.96$  and  $\text{RMR}=.04$ ) were improved compared to those in the first revised structural model. The chi-square difference test between the initial model and revised model showed a significant difference value of  $286.836 - 271.722 = 15.114$  ( $df = 1$ ,  $p = .001$ ), confirming that the second revised model had a significantly better fit than the first structural model. However, the modification indexes showed there was a problematic value (11.186) between  $\epsilon_6$  (fair price) of monetary price item and perceived service value. This may indicate a misfit in the model.

Others have identified that high price may have a negative effect on perceptions of a product's value for money (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal 1991). Indeed, Zeithaml (1988) conceptualized price as one of the central "give" components of perceived service value. Based on these rationales, it was concluded that the strong relationship between price and perceived service value made it appropriate to reestimate the model by recognizing the error covariance between these two items.



**Table 15. Fit Indices of the Second Revised Structural Model 1**

Fit Index	Value
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI),	.91
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI),	.89
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.96
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.04
Chi-square Test	$\chi^2 = 271.72$ df = 218 $\rho = .0001$



**Figure 10. The Final Revised Structural Model 1**

### *The Final Revised Structural Model 1*

Figure 10 shows the final revised model 1 and the parameters that were estimated. The difference between this model and initial model is the addition of the path between e6 and e24. The goodness of fit indices for the revised structural model are presented in Table 16. The results showed that all four of the indices (GFI=.92, AGFI=.90, CFI=.97 and RMR=.04) were improved compared to those in the second revised structural model. The chi-square difference test between the initial model and revised model showed a significant difference value of  $271.722 - 254.790 = 16.932$  ( $df = 1$ ,  $p = .001$ ), confirming that the final revised model was a significantly better fit than the first structural model. All the modification indexes were less than 10.

Results of significance tests for factor loadings and path coefficients are shown in Table 17, together with the reliability of constructs and their indicators. The reliability of an indicator variable is the square of the correlation between a latent factor and its indicators. The  $R^2$  values indicate the percent variance in the indicator that is explained by the common factor (Hatcher 1994). The  $R^2$  values in Table 17 for the structural model's latent endogenous variables, (i.e. satisfaction and behavioral intentions) were .41 and .79, respectively. These results indicate that 41% of the variance in satisfaction and 79% of the variance in behavioral intentions were explained by their corresponding indicators.

**Table 16. Fit Indices of the Final Revised Structural Model 1**

Fit Index	Value
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI),	.92
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI),	.90
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.97
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.04
Chi-square Test	$\chi^2 = 254.79$ df = 217 $p = .0001$

**Table 17. Parameter Estimates for the Final Revised Structural Model 1**

Parameter	Unstandardized Estimate	Standard Error (S.E.)	Critical Ratio ( <i>t</i> value)	R <sup>2</sup>
L1	0.85	0.15	5.69	0.51
L2	0.30	0.08	4.05	0.11
L3	1.00	--	--	0.65
L4	1.24	0.15	8.47	0.63
L5	1.20	0.14	8.49	0.60
L6	1.00	--	--	0.41
L7	1.00	--	--	0.32
L8	0.87	0.18	4.90	0.25
L9	0.92	0.19	4.97	0.26
L10	0.88	0.73	1.21	0.31
L11	1.00	--	--	0.49
L12	1.00	--	--	0.05
L13	2.49	0.83	3.00	0.25
L14	4.49	1.76	2.56	0.68
L15	1.00	--	--	0.34
L16	1.25	0.18	6.98	0.46
L17	0.79	0.14	5.50	0.22
L18	0.91	0.15	5.93	0.27
L19	1.02	0.16	6.33	0.33
L20	1.00	--	--	0.58
L21	1.08	0.11	9.99	0.49
L22	1.28	0.12	11.04	0.61
L23	0.97	0.10	9.82	0.47
B1	1.00	--	--	0.20
B2	0.74	0.22	3.32	0.19
B3	1.23	0.30	4.17	0.88
B4	0.27	0.19	1.48	0.03
B5	0.31	0.14	2.27	0.44
B6	-0.86	0.66	-1.31	
B7	-2.68	2.63	-1.02	
B8	1.70	0.88	1.92	
B9	0.27	0.44	0.62	
B10	4.68	3.61	1.30	
SAT				0.41
BI				0.79

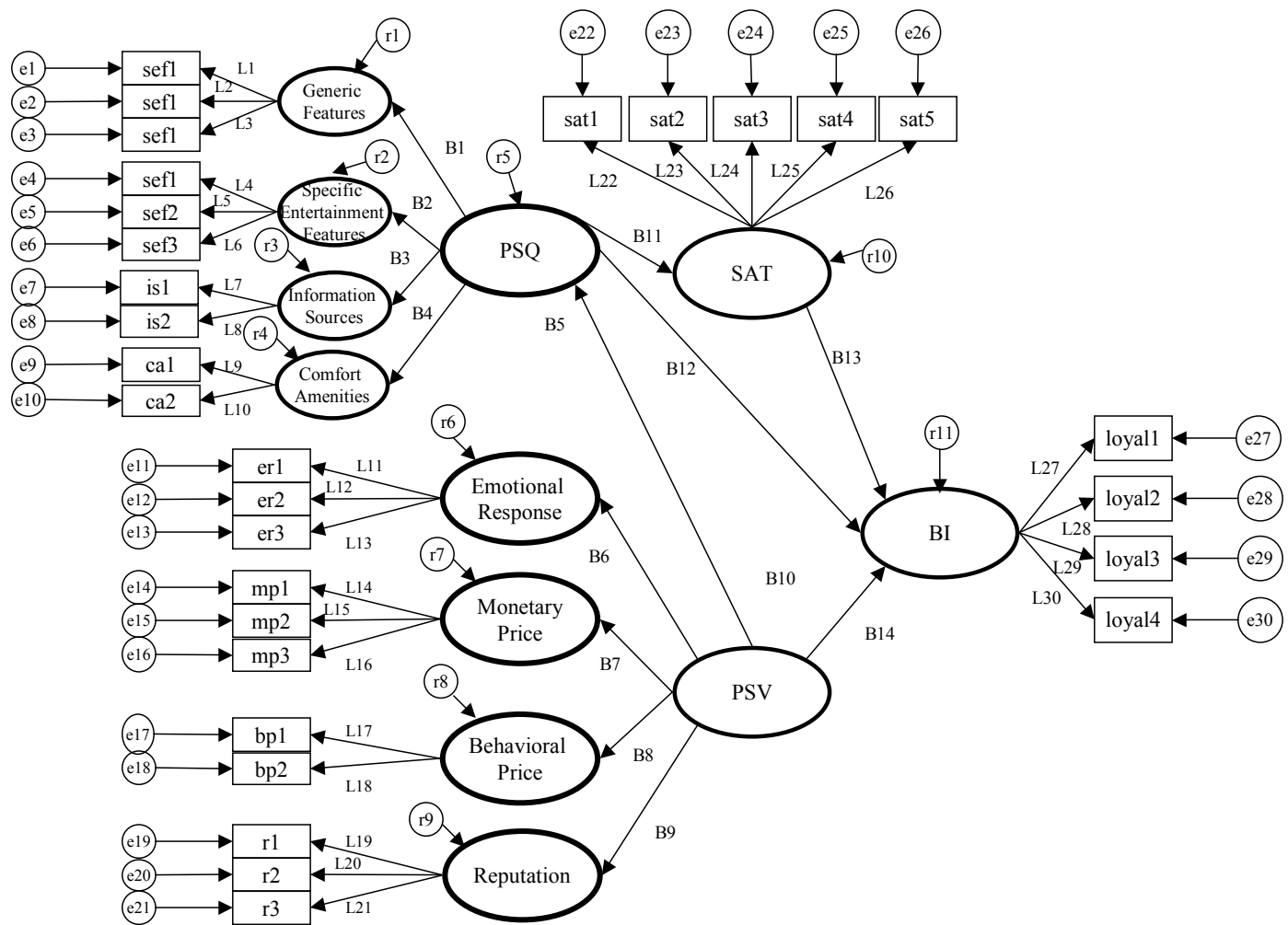


Figure 11. The Initial Structural Model 2

### *Initial Structural Model 2*

The initial structural model 2 is shown in Figure 11. The goodness of fit indices for this model are presented in Table 18. The model displayed values of .89 on the goodness of fit index (GFI), a .87 adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), and a .97 comparative fit index (CFI). These indices provided mixed support for the model because only the CFI exceeded .90. It was thus concluded that there was a problem with the model's fit.

To identify problems with the model, the patterns of modification indices were examined. MIs over 10 are considered to be large and problematic (Joreskog and Sorbom 1993) and the output indicated that the largest MI was 10.41, measuring the error covariance between one of the reputation items (e19) and error variance of satisfaction (res 10). Error correlations between item pairs are often an indication of perceived redundancy in item content (Byrne 2001).

The relationship between reputation and satisfaction has been empirically identified by others (Aaker 1992; Johnson and Grayson 2005; Keller 1993). A product or place which has a strong positive reputation may reduce a visitor's level of uncertainty, and these enhance satisfaction (Aaker 1992; Keller 1993). In Johnson and Grayson's (2003) study, a significant relationship was found between reputation and customers' affective trust. This was partially explained Linder-Pelz's (1982) definition of satisfaction suggesting that satisfaction is an affective response to a specific

experience. Based on these rationales, it was deemed appropriate to reestimate the model with the error covariance between these two items.

**Table 18. Fit Indices of the Initial Structural Model 2**

Fit Index	Value
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI),	.89
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI),	.87
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.97
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.05
Chi-square Test	$\chi^2 = 437.32$ df = 392 $\rho = .0001$





### *The Revised Structural Model 2*

Figure 12 shows the revised model 2 and the parameters that were estimated. The only difference between this model and initial model is the addition of the path between  $\epsilon_{19}$  and  $\text{res } 10$ . Fit indices for revised model 1 are presented in Table 19. The fit indices of the new model have higher values than those of an initial model ( $\text{GFI} = .90$ ,  $\text{AGFI} = .88$ ,  $\text{CFI} = .98$  and  $\text{RMR} = .04$ ), indicating that the revised structure model has a better fit than the initial structural model. The chi-square difference test between the initial model and revised model showed a significant difference value of  $437.318 - 422.951 = 14.367$  ( $df = 1$ ,  $p = .001$ ) confirming that the revised model was a significantly better fit than the initial structural model. All modification indexes were less than 10.

Results of significance tests for factor loadings and path coefficients are shown in Table 20. Reliability of constructs and their indicators also are shown in Table 20. The  $R^2$  values in Table 20 for the structural model's latent endogenous variables, i.e. (satisfaction and behavioral intentions) were .68 and .66, respectively indicating that 68% of the variance in satisfaction and 66% of the variance in behavioral intentions were explained by their corresponding indicators.

**Table 19. Fit Indices of the Revised Structural Model 2**

Fit Index	Value
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI),	.90
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI),	.88
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.98
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.04
Chi-square Test	$\chi^2 = 422.95$ df = 391 $\rho = .0001$

**Table 20. Parameter Estimates for the Revised Structural Model 2**

Parameter	Unstandardized Estimate	Standard Error (S.E.)	Critical Ratio ( <i>t</i> value)	R <sup>2</sup>
L1	0.40	0.07	5.54	0.12
L2	0.81	0.08	10.66	0.33
L3	1.00	--	--	0.99
L4	0.98	0.18	5.46	0.22
L5	1.99	0.41	4.84	0.92
L6	1.00	--	--	0.21
L7	1.12	0.37	3.01	0.49
L8	1.00	--	--	0.39
L9	0.45	0.23	2.00	0.04
L10	1.00	--	--	0.12
L11	1.11	0.17	6.39	0.67
L12	0.32	0.08	4.06	0.10
L13	1.00	--	--	0.51
L14	1.53	0.18	8.48	0.62
L15	1.52	0.18	8.48	0.62
L16	1.00	--	--	0.41
L17	1.20	0.48	2.48	0.42
L18	1.00	--	--	0.36
L19	1.00	--	--	0.18
L20	1.85	0.43	4.29	0.53
L21	1.58	0.35	4.49	0.32
L22	1.00	--	--	0.32
L23	1.25	0.18	6.80	0.44
L24	0.78	0.15	5.30	0.21
L25	0.95	0.16	5.94	0.28
L26	1.08	0.17	6.38	0.35
L27	1.00	--	--	0.58
L28	1.05	0.11	9.81	0.47
L29	1.31	0.12	11.30	0.63
L30	0.96	0.10	9.84	0.47
B1	1.00	--	--	0.27
B2	0.67	0.21	3.23	0.27
B3	0.78	0.28	2.77	0.18
B4	1.11	0.33	3.42	0.97
B5	0.40	0.18	2.16	0.16
B6	1.00	--	--	0.28
B7	0.43	0.14	3.06	0.11

**Table 20. Continued**

Parameter	Unstandardized Estimate	Standard Error (S.E.)	Critical Ratio ( <i>t</i> value)	R <sup>2</sup>
B8	0.46	0.19	2.41	0.12
B9	0.39	0.13	3.00	0.20
B10	0.81	0.24	3.37	0.68
B11	0.18	0.17	1.05	
B12	0.84	0.33	2.52	
B13	-0.15	0.43	-0.34	
B14	1.41	0.60	2.37	
SAT				0.68
BI				0.66

*Direct and Indirect Relationship among Latent Variables*

Figure 13 illustrates the standardized coefficients for each path in model 1 and Figure 14 illustrates the standardized coefficients for each path in model 2. Each path represents the strength of the direct effect of an exogenous variable on an endogenous variable, and of endogenous variables to one another. Direct effects do not influence or mediate any other variable in the model, while indirect effects are mediated by one or more intervening variables. The total effect refers to the sum of the direct and indirect effects of the variable.

Direct, indirect and total effects for the latent variables were calculated in Tables 21 and 22. In model 1, service quality had a positive direct effect on perceived service value (.94). None of the three variables (service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction) had a direct or indirect effect on behavioral intentions. In structural model 2, perceived service value exhibited the strongest relationship with visitors' behavioral intentions (.79), while satisfaction showed a non-significant relationship with visitors' behavioral intentions, either directly or indirectly.

**Table 21. Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Latent Variables (Model 1)**

	PSV			SAT			BI		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
SQ	.94	--	.94			ns			ns
PSV		--				ns			ns
SAT		ns			--				ns

**Table 22. Direct, Indirect and Total Effects of Latent Variables (Model 2)**

	PSV			SAT			BI		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
PSQ	.40	--	.40	ns	--	ns	.38	.26	.64
PSV				.75		.75	.64	.15	.79
SAT		ns			--			ns	ns







### *Results of Hypothesis Tests*

Figures 13 and 14 show the standardized coefficient for each path in the model 1 and 2. The Hypothesis 1(a) stated that utilizing model 1, satisfaction, perceived service value and perceived service quality are related to behavioral intention. This hypothesis is shown by the paths illustrated in Figure 13. The  $t$  value for these path coefficients were not significant at  $\alpha = .001$  (Table 17). Service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction did not relate to visitors' behavioral intention either directly or indirectly. The non-significant coefficient provides evidence to not support Hypothesis 1(a).

Hypothesis 1(b) stated that emotional response, quality, monetary price, behavioral price and reputation are related to perceived service value. These path coefficients are reported in Figure 13, and the  $t$  value in Table 17 shows that emotional response, quality, monetary price and reputation were significantly related to perceived service value but behavioral price was not. Thus, Hypothesis 1(b) was only partially supported. Hypothesis 1(c) stated that satisfaction is predicted by perceived service quality and perceived service value. As displayed in Figure 13 and Table 17 this hypothesis was also not supported as the paths from service quality and perceived service value to satisfaction were not significant. Hypothesis 1(d), stating that perceived service quality would be the best predictor of behavioral intention. This hypothesis was also not supported as none of the three dimensions (service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction) showed either a direct or indirect effect on behavioral intention (see Table 21).

Hypothesis 2(a) stated that satisfaction, perceived service value and perceived service quality are related to behavioral intention. The standardized path coefficients are shown in Figure 14. The  $t$  tests for each path coefficient is presented in Table 20, and were significant at  $\alpha = .001$ . Perceived service value and perceived service quality showed a significant relationship to behavioral intentions, but satisfaction showed a non-significant relationship to behavioral intentions. Thus, hypothesis 2(a) was only partially supported. It was also hypothesized that perceived service value was predicted by perceived sacrifice and perceived service quality. The scale of perceived sacrifice was found not to be reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of .02, thus, it was eliminated from the model. Therefore, hypothesis 2(b) could not be tested by the model.

Hypothesis 2(c) stated that satisfaction was predicted by perceived service value and perceived service quality. In the revised structural model, the path coefficient between perceived service value and satisfaction was significant, but the path coefficient between perceived service quality and satisfaction was non-significant. The non-significant path coefficient between these variables suggested that satisfaction was not predicted by perceived service quality but was predicted by perceived service value. Therefore, hypothesis 2(c) was not supported. Hypothesis 2(d) stated that perceived service quality is the best predictor of behavioral intention. Table 22 indicated that the best predictor of behavioral intention was perceived service value with a total effect of .79. Therefore, hypothesis 2(d) was not supported, and it was found that perceived service value was the best predictor.

Hypothesis 3 stated that model 1 would fit the data better than model 2. Perceived service quality was operationalized differently in models 1 and 2. Model 1 measured quality using a visitor's judgment about a product or service's overall excellence or superiority (Petrick 2002a; Zeithaml 1988). In model 2, perceived service quality was operationalized as attributes of a service which can be controlled and manipulated by suppliers (Baker and Crompton 2000; Crompton and Love 1995).

The results of the two models are reported in Table 17 and 20. Even though fit indices of model 1 showed that the final revised structural model was a good fit of the data (indices  $> .90$ ), parameter estimates in the final revised model were not all significant at  $\alpha = .05$  and were not all positive (Table 17). In model 2, fit indices showed that the final revised structural model was a reasonably good fit with the data (indices  $> .90$ ). All parameter estimates in the final revised model were significant at  $\alpha = .05$  and were positive, except the paths between perceived service quality and satisfaction and satisfaction and behavioral intention (Table 20).

In model 1, 41% of the variance in satisfaction and 79% of the variance in behavioral intentions were explained by their corresponding indicators. In model 2, 68% of the variance in satisfaction and 66% of the variance in behavioral intentions were explained by their corresponding indicators. Both models exhibited a reasonable level of explained variance, but most of parameter estimates in model 1 (i.e., service quality and satisfaction; satisfaction and behavioral intention; and service quality and behavioral intention) were not significant suggesting the data were not a good fit with the model.

Thus, model 2 was deemed to fit the data better than the model 1. Therefore, hypothesis three was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 stated that the superior model from hypothesis 3 fit the data better when perceived service value led to satisfaction rather than in the opposite direction. When the path was directed from satisfaction to perceived service value, the value of fit indices decreased slightly ( $GFI = 0.89$ ,  $AGFI = 0.87$  and  $CFI = 0.97$ ) and the chi-square increased from 422.95 to 426.94 with a same degrees of freedom. This indicated that the path direction from perceived service value to satisfaction fit the data better. Thus, hypothesis four was supported.

Hypothesis 5 stated that the resultant model from Hypothesis 4 would result in perceived service quality being the best predictor of behavioral intention. Table 22 illustrated that perceived service value was the best predictor of behavioral intention. It had a stronger effect on behavioral intention (.79) than the other two variables (perceived service quality = .64 and satisfaction = not significant). Therefore, hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 stated that the perceived service quality attributes relating to Generic Features would be the best predictor of overall perceived service quality. The standardized path coefficients shown in Figure 14 support that the Generic Features domain had the highest standardized path coefficient (.52) along with Comfort Amenities (.48). The  $t$  test for each path coefficient was significant at  $\alpha = .001$  (Table 32). Therefore, hypothesis six was supported.

Hypothesis 7 stated that perceived service quality attributes related to Generic Features is the best predictor of behavioral intention. The relationship between perceived service value and behavioral intentions (.79) showed a stronger link than the link between perceived service quality and behavioral intentions (.64). Thus, hypothesis seven was not supported.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In the previous chapter, the findings of the study were presented. The analysis considered the relationships among perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and visitors' future behavioral intentions. The major objective of the study was to investigate which of the alternative measures of quality would better fit the data in predicting visitors' behavioral intentions.

This chapter first discusses the study's results and considers their theoretical implications. Next, their managerial implications are discussed. Limitations of the study are then considered, and the chapter concludes with suggestions for future research.

#### Summary of the Results

Data analyses were conducted to address the research questions posed in Chapter

I. Major findings of the data analyses were:

- 1) A structural model operationalizing perceived service quality as attributes fit the data better than an alternative model that measured quality by using a visitor's judgment about a service's overall excellence or superiority.
- 2) Among the four dimensions of service quality of a festival (generic features, specific entertainment features, information source, comfort amenities),

generic features and comfort amenities had the most influence on determining perceived service quality.

- 3) The testing of alternative directions for the association between perceived service value and satisfaction indicated that the path direction from perceived service value to satisfaction fit the data better than the path in the opposite direction.
- 4) Perceived service value (.79) was a better predictor of visitors' behavioral intention than the other two constructs (perceived service quality and satisfaction). However, perceived service quality (.64) was also a relatively strong predictor of visitors' behavioral intentions, while satisfaction had a non significant relationship with visitors' behavioral intentions.

### Discussion of the Findings

The discussion addresses each of the four major findings of the data analysis. Perceived service quality has been found to be an important indicator of the behavioral intention of visitors (Baker and Crompton 2000; Childress and Crompton 1997; Crompton and Love 1995). The current study compared two different models examining the relationships between perceived service value, perceived service quality, satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Perceived service value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions were operationalized same in both models, while perceived service quality was operationalized in two different ways. In Model 1, perceived service quality was



operationalized as overall perception of the quality of services. In Model 2, perceived service quality was operationalized more specifically in terms of service attributes. The attributes utilized in Model 2 were adapted from Love and Crompton's (1995) study.

The test results showed that when visitors' perceived service quality was measured using their judgments about a service's overall excellence or superiority, the relationships between the three constructs (perceived service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction) and behavioral intention were not significant. However, when visitors' perceived service quality was operationalized as attributes of a service, the relationships between two of the constructs (perceived service quality and perceived service value) and behavioral intention were significant.

Operationalizing perceived service quality using attributes gives managers/suppliers specific direction through identifying the dimensions that indicate a strong (or weak) relationship to service quality, whereas measuring overall perception of quality offers no such useful guidance. Using the four dimensions of service quality attributes allows festival and event managers/providers to identify the dimension(s) of service quality which are perceived to perform well or poorly. Since attributes of service quality can be controlled and manipulated by managers (Crompton and Mackay 1989), this type of measure avails them the ability to adjust particular attributes so that visitors receive a better experience.

The test results indicated that the service quality domains of generic features (i.e., visual appearance, live entertainment and a feeling of safety) and comfort amenities (i.e., cleanliness of the portable restrooms and availability of restroom) had stronger

relationships with overall quality than those of information sources and specific entertainment features. Given the strong relationship between perceived service quality and behavioral intention, it is likely that ensuring high quality of generic features and offering clean and plentiful comfort amenities would strengthen visitors' behavioral intentions.

Dimensions which were rated lowest in terms of relationships to quality (information sources and specific entertainment features) were still rated significant and positively, indicating that they are not unimportant. Thus, enhancing information sources and specific entertainment features also may increase overall perceptions of service quality. All domains were important. However in relation to the others, these latter two domains were relatively less influential in determining positive behavioral intention.

The current study indicated that perceived service value is an antecedent to visitors' satisfaction. This supports the theoretical contention that when visitors receive good value it is likely to lead to satisfying experiences (Bojanic 1996). Woodruff (1997) recognized the importance of perceived service value when measuring satisfaction by stating, "if consumer satisfaction measurement is not backed up with in-depth learning about customer value and related problems that underlie their evaluation, it may not provide enough of the customer's voice to guide managers in how to respond" (p. 139). The antecedent role of perceived service value to satisfaction emphasized that it is necessary for there to be a good perceptions of service value in order to create a

satisfying experience. Understanding the role each of the five dimensions play in perceived service value, provides suppliers with specific direction.

### Theoretical Implications

Results of the current study have both theoretical and managerial implications. Theoretically, the results provided support for the findings of previous studies that perceived service value is the best determinant of visitors' behavioral intention (Chang and Wildt 1994; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996; Petrick 2004). Perceived service quality was a leading predictor of perceived service value, which also is consistent with previous studies that addressed the determinants of perceived service value (Bolton and Drew 1991; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996).

This study also showed that perceived service quality not only had a direct significant effect on visitors' behavioral intentions, but also that it was a better predictor of perceived service value than the four other dimensions of perceived service value (i.e. emotional response, monetary price, behavioral price and reputation). Besides the direct effects, the indirect effects of perceived service quality and perceived service value on visitors' behavioral intention indicated that there were complex relationships with the other constructs which would not have emerged if the study had investigated only direct relationships among the constructs (i.e., perceived service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction). The study findings also support the theoretical conceptualization

that enhanced performance of quality attributes leads to stronger positive behavioral intentions (Baker and Crompton 2000).

These findings generally confirm the predictive power of perceived service quality and perceived service value on visitors' future behavioral intentions that has been reported by others (Cronin et al. 2000; Petrick 2004). However, in this study the influence of perceived service quality on behavioral intentions was found to be weaker than that of perceived service value. This implies that tourism providers/suppliers should focus on maximizing the perceptions of service quality and those dimensions (reputation and emotional response) that have a stronger relationship with perceived service value, rather than emphasizing costs such as behavioral costs and monetary cost which had a weaker relationship with perceived service value.

The study's results further showed that all five dimensions of perceived value were positively related to overall perceived service value. Among the five dimensions, those of perceived service quality, emotional response and reputation showed strong relationships, while monetary and behavioral price dimensions showed weak relationships, with overall perceived service value. This finding suggests that unlike cruise travel (Petrick 2002a) which is much more expensive than visiting a festival, price may not have a strong effect on perceptions of service value. Petrick's (2002a) instrument conceptualized perceived service value as a multi-dimensional construct: quality, emotional response, monetary price, behavioral price and reputation. It was found to be valid and reliable. His five dimensions of perceived service value were operationalized in Model 1 and Model 2 in this study. With cruise travel, visitors are

likely to spend more time searching for travel information on the internet or calling a travel agency to ask questions. Visiting a festival is much cheaper and takes only a few hours to visit so dimensions such as monetary and behavioral price may not have a strong relationship with overall perceived service value. These results suggest the most effective way to enhance perceptions of service value among festival visitors is to focus on the perceived service quality, emotional response and reputation dimensions. Even though perceived service quality did not show the strongest significant relationship to visitors' behavioral intention, it was the strongest predictor of perceived service value in this study.

In previous studies, perceived service value was conceptualized as being a function of the interaction between perceived sacrifice and perceived service quality (Bojanic 1996; Chang and Wildt 1994; Jayanti and Ghosh 1996; Monroe 1990; Woodruff and Gardial 1996; Zeithaml 1988). However, the empirical results of the current study indicate that the perceived service value was largely defined by perceptions of service quality. The perception of sacrifice was minimal for many visitors because senior respondents (19.2%) got in free and over 90% of respondents were local residents. This minimized travel and time costs for many of visitors. Further, the profile of visitors was high socio-economics which indicate relatively high discretionary income. These findings indicate the perception of quality as an important decision-making criterion for festival visitors.

The non-significant relationships of satisfaction with service quality in both models may reflect the different nature of the satisfaction construct in that it is a

psychological outcome (Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987) involving interaction not only with the attributes provided by a tourism supplier, but also with attributes not controlled by managers, such as climate or chemistry within the social group (Crompton and Love 1995). The non-significant relationship between service quality and satisfaction in the study does not mean there is no relationship between these two constructs. Rather, it suggests that other factors such as needs, mood, climate, or social group interaction that were brought by visitors might have had a negative effect on satisfaction that was strong enough to offset any positive perceptions of service quality. It suggests that perceptions of good service quality do not always result in visitors having a satisfying experience.

In this study, both perceived service quality and perceived service value had a significant relationship with visitors' behavioral intentions but satisfaction did not. It supported the observation that visitors' satisfaction does not always lead to positive behavioral intentions (Jones and Sasser 1995; Mittal and Lasser 1998). This result supports previous findings (Baker and Crompton 2000; Cronin et al. 2000) that perceptions of service quality had a stronger effect on behavioral intentions than satisfaction. Perhaps those who were most likely to visit in the future were more aware of service quality attributes and perceptions of service value, because these features were more pertinent to them than the satisfaction which is based on a holistic view of a phenomenon (Cronin et al. 2000).

Perceived service quality and service value are cognitive responses while satisfaction is an emotional response to a service experience (Cronin et al. 2000). A cognitive response is the first stage in Bagozzi's (1992) model suggesting that the initial

service evaluation (first impression) precedes an emotional reaction, which in turn, generates behavior. It suggests that the more cognitively-oriented service quality and value evaluations lead to satisfaction. Once visitors received good first impression through service quality and service value, these two constructs may have a stronger effect on visitors' behavioral intentions than satisfaction. This suggests that having a satisfying experience is desirable but it is more important to develop strong perceptions of service quality and service value for visitors. It emphasizes the importance of visual appeal of the festival atmosphere to make good first and lasting impression from the visitors. Providers/suppliers have the opportunity to elicit good perceptions of service quality from visitors since they can control or manipulate the attributes of a service. However, although visitors might have positive perceptions of the service quality, they may not be satisfied with their visit because of uncontrollable variables such as bad weather (too hot or raining) or the company of people with whom they came. These results appear to suggest the contention that perceptions of good service quality do not always result in visitors having a satisfying experience.

The non-significant relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intention may reflect the way satisfaction was operationalized. All five items had not previously been used together to operationalize satisfaction. Even though the items were found to be reliable and valid when used in other studies, aggregating them may not be a good measure. The instrument utilized in the current study was found to be valid and reliable. Further research into the utility of this operationalization of satisfaction may lead to a better understanding of its ability to predict behavioral intentions.

Based on the results of this study, the strong relationship between service quality and perceived service value suggests that providing high quality service will enhance perceptions of service value. If managers ignore the role of perceived value and focus only on perceived quality, then the effect on satisfaction is likely to be weaker. Dimensions like emotional response and reputation also should not be ignored since they both exhibited a significant relationship with perceived service value. Also, the mediated effect of perceived service quality through perceived service value and satisfaction to behavioral intention suggests that providers should put more efforts into delivering better service value and satisfaction by focusing on the dimension(s) that visitors tend to view as being most important. Once a visitor receives good service quality, then the perception of service value is likely to increase, which eventually is likely to generate positive behavioral intentions.

This study used a multi-dimensional scale to measure perceived service value comprised of five different dimensions: emotional response, service quality, monetary price, behavioral price, and reputation. These dimensions allow managers/providers to better understand their visitors, since the strength of specific dimension relationships to perceived service value varies. Two models with different utilization of perceived service quality were tested in the study. In model 1, perceived service quality was measured utilizing Petrick's (2002b) quality dimension. In model 2, the general quality dimension of perceived service value was replaced by four dimensions (i.e. generic features, specific entertainment features, information sources, and comfort amenities) of perceived service quality.



Previous studies have shown evidence of the influential role of perceived service value in visitors' decision making (Oh 1999; Parasuraman and Grewal 2000; Petrick 2004; Zeithaml 1988). They have suggested that repurchase intentions were better predicted by perceived service value than by either satisfaction or service quality (Cronin et al. 2000; Oh 2000). This study supports these findings by showing that perceived service value had a stronger relationship with behavioral intentions than the other constructs (i.e. perceived service quality and satisfaction).

### Managerial Implications

Identifying the construct(s) that best predict behavioral intentions is likely to be a primary concern of tourism managers/providers. The relatively strong effect of perceived service quality and perceived service value on behavioral intentions confirmed the findings of others that improving perceptions of these constructs could lead to enhanced repeat visitation and positive word-of-mouth. The study examined the relationship among perceived service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction and found that perceived service quality and perceived service value both had a direct and indirect effect on visitors' future behavioral intentions. The study found that festival managers should focus on assessing both visitors' perceived service quality and perceived service value since the total effect of perceived service quality (.64) and perceived service value (.79) on behavioral intentions indicate that they are both useful predictors of visitors' behavioral intention. The study also found that perceived service

value mediated the effect of perception of service quality and had a direct effect on behavioral intention. This indicates the important role of perceived service value in determining the behavioral intentions of visitors. Thus, festival and event managers should carefully measure this construct and identify dimensions (e.g., service quality, emotional response and reputation) that show a strong relationship with overall perceived service value. Festival managers should focus on perceived service value since it seems to be a significant determinant of visitors' behavioral intentions.

Tourism attractions are often developed without intensive research into markets and the needs of visitors (Seaton and Bennett 1996). To satisfy visitors, tourism providers should identify those needs; focus on meeting them; and focus their marketing effort on providing and promoting these benefits. This study suggested that the two dimensions that were most important to festival visitors were perceived service quality and perceived service value.

From a managerial perspective, perceived service quality should be viewed as the most important construct of a service since quality attributes can be more easily controlled and manipulated by providers. To positively influence visitors' future visitation, managers should focus on generic features such as visual appearance, live entertainment and a feeling of safety, and on providing clean and plentiful comfort amenities which consist of cleanliness of the portable restrooms and availability of restrooms, since the ratings allow festival managers to predict perceptions of service quality from visitors. If these were poor quality, the overall perception of service quality is likely to be relatively low. The study findings support the theoretical

conceptualization that enhanced performance of quality attributes leads to stronger positive behavioral intentions (Baker and Crompton 2000).

Among the five dimensions of service value, service quality, emotional response and reputation showed the strongest effect on perceived service value. Thus, managers of the Conroe festival should focus more on these dimensions. Since managers are able to manage and control the attributes of service quality, pleasant emotional response may be achieved through good perceptions of service quality in a festival. Since generic features (i.e., visual appearance, live entertainment and a feeling of safety) and comfort amenities (i.e., cleanliness of the portable restrooms and availability of restroom) can help the Cajun Catfish Festival to predict future behavioral intentions of its visitors, managers should put more effort into providing these features. Generic features and comfort amenities could motivate visitors to return and eventually provide a greater potential for increasing their perceptions of service value with the festival since perceived service quality had strong influence on perceived service value. In this study, reputation was operationalized as how much visitors respected and how well they thought of this festival. Associating a well-known charity with the name of the festival may be a way of enhancing reputation and also be an effective way to promote the festival.

The study found that high perceptions of service quality and service value are positively related to positive behavioral intentions. The relationship between perceived service quality and perceived service value suggested that festival managers should not focus only on improving one construct but both constructs since both constructs can

contribute directly and indirectly to visitors' behavioral intentions. Indeed, the influence of perceived service value on visitors' behavioral intention is stronger than that of perceived service quality. Ignoring visitors' perceived service value may cause a lowering of visitors' satisfaction and behavioral intention to visit in the future.

Since perceived service quality and service value appear to be influential in predicting future behavioral intentions of the festival's visitors, they should be a central focus of the festival's marketing strategy. In order to improve perceived service quality and service value, festival managers should focus their attention on the perceived service quality domains such as generic features and comfort amenities and those dimensions of perceived service value such as reputation and emotional response since these are the significant reasons visitors come to the festival.

### Limitations of the Study

The study contributes to the tourism and marketing literatures in that it examined the relationships among perceived service quality, perceived service value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions in a manner that had not been reported previously. The model had a theoretical foundation and it was empirically verified. However, the study does have limitations.

The primary limitation is its generalizability. It focused on one particular festival setting. While the results obtained are likely to be useful to the Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival, they may not be directly applicable to other festival settings since festivals are

inherently diverse and characterized by having many different themes. The general nature of the findings need to be confirmed in other service contexts.

The limited number of respondents prevented conclusive answers to the research hypotheses being drawn. Although relationships among constructs were identified, the study did not verify that they were causal relationships.

### Suggestions for Future Research

Five suggestions for future research are offered here. First, this type of research should be conducted at other festivals to test the generalizability of the findings reported here. Different tourism contexts mean that different attributes will be used to measure the constructs used. These different measures may have different influences or results on latent variables. However, the relationship between the model's constructs should be consistent with those reported here. Future empirical work should address this thesis.

Second, even though causal models are developed in structural equation modeling procedures, they do not prove causal relationships. A model only verifies whether the causal assumptions in a structural model fit the data or do not (Bollen 1989). Hence, the results of this study were able to confirm only that the proposed structural relationships among constructs in the conceptual model for the most part were supported by the sample data collected for this study. To examine the validity of the proposed model, its fit with other samples of data needs to be explored, as well as an examination of competing models.

Third, the study reported a non-significant relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Structural equation modeling does not prove or disprove relationships, but rather it shows only whether the relationship suggested in the model has support from the sample data. Although the influence of satisfaction on behavioral intention was not significant in this study, there is evidence in previous literature (Baker and Crompton 2000; Oh 1999; Petrick 2004; Tam 2000) that there is a significant relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Future research should clarify the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

Fourth, the present study examined only the perceived service quality, perceived service value and satisfaction constructs in determining the behavioral intentions of visitors. These do not constitute all possible influences on visitors' decision making for future visitation. The proposed model limited the possible variables which could affect visitors' future behavioral intentions. It is recommended that other variables such as motivation and destination image could be considered in future studies. For example, novelty is a basic motivation, which drives visitors' search for new and different experiences (Lee and Crompton, 1992). Thus, if a visitor's main purpose for visiting a particular festival is to pursue a novelty experience and the perceptions of that festival were something new and exciting, then the visitor may have a satisfying experience. This may drive visitors to visit the festival again in the future. Image is an overall impression of an object (Oxenfeldt 1974). Destination image tends to influence visitors' decision-making processes (Echtner and Ritchie 1991). It could be operationalized

through developing domains of attributes of the image and identifying which most influence visitors' behavioral intentions.

Fifth, it is recommended that the model could be tested with particular sub-samples to test its robustness. It is important to recognize and understand the gendered complexities in order to better target the market. Walmsley and Jenkins (1993) found the image of some places differed based on visitors' age and gender. The study investigated the perception of image with resorts in Australia. Baloglu (1999) also found the relationship between the perceived image and other variables such as tourists' age, marital status and occupation. Later study reported the relationship between a tourists' age and level of with the perceived image of various tourist destinations (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). A study identified an influencing role of tourists' gender and family status with the perceptions of image of a rural tourist destination (Chen and Kerstetter 1999). As Kinnaird and Hall (1994) suggested that since tourism constitutes one of the largest sectors in global trade, "it is essential that we reformulate our focus to identify associated societal change and what it means for men and women"(p. 27). To better understand how different group of respondents are responding differently, the future study should test the conceptual model with groups of visitors (i.e., female and overall visitors and young and old visitors).

Directing marketing efforts to enhance positive behavioral intention at first-time visitors may not be appropriate for encouraging repeat visitors to visit the site. Gitelson and Crompton (1984) suggested destination areas such as beaches or resorts must rely heavily on repeat visitation. They also suggested that the primary concern of their

marketing efforts should be devoted to the development and maintenance of repeat visitors. Fakeye and Crompton's (1991) study examined image differences among prospective, first-time and repeat visitors. The study suggested that repeat visitors showed greater tendency toward the awareness of social opportunities and attractions and perhaps stronger social networks than the first-time visitors. The future study should test the conceptual model to first-time and repeat visitors.

By testing the model at different group of visitors enhance conceptual understanding of the relative influence and nature of perceived service quality, perceived service value, and satisfaction on behavioral intentions in different groups of visitors. This would provide useful insights to event and festival providers to better prepare for each group of visitors' visitation in the future. It will also test the conceptual model's robustness by comparing the relative strength among different group sectors.



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## APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER

QUESTIONNAIRE

## TEXAS A&amp;M UNIVERSITY

College of Agriculture and Life Sciences  
Department of Recreation, Parks and Tourism Sciences

Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival  
**Visitor Survey**



Dear Conroe Catfish Festival Visitor,

We hope you enjoy your visit to the Cajun Catfish Festival! The festival organizers have invited Texas A&M University to conduct a survey to assist in on-going efforts to improve the festival's quality.

Your opinion counts! You are one of a small sample of visitors who have been asked for feedback regarding their visit experience. Your opinions will help us learn more about what people want and what they think about the festival. Our intent is to use your feedback to enhance the festival's services, facilities and information so your future visits will be even more enjoyable.

All information you provide will be strictly confidential. Your responses will be combined with those of other visitors so that no single survey respondent will be identified. Your completed survey should be placed in the pre-paid self-addressed envelope provided and mailed to us. After analysis of the data is completed, all the names and addresses of respondents will be destroyed, and you will receive no further correspondence or solicitations.

If you have any questions, please contact Dr. John Crompton at (979) 845-5412 or So Yon Lee at (979) 845-6096, Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843-2261.

Thank you again for taking the time to help us!

Sincerely,

Leo Hewett  
Festival Chairman

1. Festival 2003. Please circle the number which best reflects your opinion.

	<b>Very Poor</b>				<b>Very Good</b>		
The visual appearance of Cajun Catfish Festival was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The live entertainment was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The promptness of the music performance was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall, the quality of Cajun Catfish Festival was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The feelings of safety on the site was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The cleanliness of the portable restrooms was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The number of places to sit down and rest was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The printed information showing event locations and performance schedules was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Craft exhibits/vendors were	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The cleanliness of the festival site was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The food and beverages were	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Kachunga and alligator show was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The site's accessibility for those with special needs (e.g. handicapped, elderly, young children, etc.) was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The availability of restrooms was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Children's Area was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The onsite signs which gave directions were	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The friendliness of people at Cajun Catfish Festival was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Please circle the number that best reflects your feelings about your visit to the Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival.

<b>I feel That...</b>	<b>Very Low</b>				<b>Very High</b>		
Compared to what I had to give up, the overall ability of the Cajun Catfish Festival to satisfy my wants and needs was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The time required to attend the Cajun Catfish Festival was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The effort I made to attend Cajun Catfish Festival was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall, the value of the Cajun Catfish Festival's services to me was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The price charged for admission to the Cajun Catfish Festival was	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Please circle the number that best reflects your feelings about your visit to the Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival.

I feel That...	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
The admission price at the Cajun Catfish Festival was reasonably priced.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Thinking of the Cajun Catfish Festival makes me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My visit to the Cajun Catfish Festival required little effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My choice to visit this festival was a wise one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Cajun Catfish Festival delivered high satisfaction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
High expectations were met.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Cajun Catfish Festival gives me a sense of joy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Cajun Catfish Festival has a good reputation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The quality of the Cajun Catfish Festival was very dependable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The admission price at the Cajun Catfish Festival was worth the money.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The quality of the Cajun Catfish Festival was very consistent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel delighted when I think of the Cajun Catfish Festival.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Cajun Catfish Festival is well respected.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My visit to the Cajun Catfish Festival required little energy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The admission price at the Cajun Catfish Festival was fairly priced.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think that I did the right thing when I visited this festival.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am satisfied with my decision to visit this festival.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Cajun Catfish is well thought of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The quality of the Cajun Catfish Festival was very reliable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel that my experience with this festival has been enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



4. Based on your overall experience at Cajun Catfish Festival 2003, please indicate how likely you are to take the following actions. Please circle the number that indicates your likelihood of taking each action.

Actions you might take...	Not at all Likely		Somewhat Likely		Extremely Likely	
Say positive things about the Cajun Catfish Festival to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Complain to the Cajun Catfish Festival's employees if you experience a problem with the festival's service.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Not come back to Cajun Catfish Festival in the next three years.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Continue to attend Cajun Catfish Festival if the admission price was increased.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Switch to another festival, if you experience a problem with the Cajun Catfish Festival's service.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Attend Cajun Catfish Festival either next year or the year after.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Recommend the Cajun Catfish Festival to others who want to visit a festival.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Visit other festivals which have a lower admission price.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Complain to other visitors or friends if you experience a problem with the Cajun Catfish Festival's service.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Encourage friends and relatives to go to the Cajun Catfish Festival.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Pay a higher admission fee for the Cajun Catfish Festival than at other festivals.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
Consider Cajun Catfish Festival as my first choice among festivals to visit in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

5. Are you male or female? (Please circle one)      Male      Female

6. What year were you born? 19\_\_\_\_\_

7. Please circle the number that best indicates your level of education.

1   2   3   4   5      6   7   8      9   10   11   12      13   14   15   16   17+  
 Grade School      Junior High      High School      College

***Thank you very much for your cooperation!***

Please place your completed survey in the pre-paid self-addressed envelope provided and mail it to us.  
 You will be automatically included in our drawing for a \$150 prize once you return this survey.  
 Your name and address will only be used for drawing purposes.

## APPENDIX B

## SUBSEQUENT CONTACT INFORMATION

## COVER LETTER

**ON-SITE CONTACT FORM**

Interviewer \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_

1. Have you been to the Cajun Catfish Festival before?    YES                      NO

If yes, how many times? \_\_\_\_\_

2. What is the zip code of your home address? \_\_\_\_\_

3. How many other festivals have you visited in the past three years? \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you so much for your cooperation!! Please take the time to help us by filling in the survey questionnaire when you get home and return it to us in the prepaid envelope. Your response is of crucial importance to the survey's success. Please write down your name, home address, phone-number, and e-mail address so when we receive your completed questionnaire we can enter your name into a draw for a \$150 prize. After the drawing is completed, this information will be destroyed and it will not be shared with anyone else.

Home address:

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Home phone number : (      ) \_\_\_\_\_

E-mail address:

\_\_\_\_\_



October 27, 2003

Dear Visitor to Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival,

On your recent visit to Conroe Cajun Catfish Festival, you were selected to participate in a visitors' survey. At that time you were given a questionnaire asking about your experience at the festival. As of today, we have yet to receive your completed survey.

We are conducting this survey because we believe that you can provide important information that will help improve the festival in the future.

Since we are sampling only a small percentage of visitors, it is important that we receive back all of the questionnaires. We want the results of this survey to truly represent the thoughts and opinions of all visitors to the festival, so your response is important to us.

In the event that your questionnaire has been misplaced, a replacement is enclosed with a postage-paid envelope. Please take a few minutes to participate in this important study by filling out and returning your questionnaire.

Again, let us assure you that your remarks are confidential. Your cooperation and support is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Leo Hewett  
Festival Chairman

## VITA

**Name:** So Yon Lee

**Permanent Address:** Shin-An-Ju-Tek #73, Sanjung 3 Dong, Chunnam Korea

**Education:**

Bachelor of Science, 1996  
University of North Texas, Denton, TX  
Major: Hospitality Management

Master of Science, 1999  
University of North Texas, Denton, TX  
Major: Hospitality Management